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Ernest P. Bicknell

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

Thirty-sixth Annual Session held in the City of
Buffalo, N. Y., June 9th to 16th
1909

EDITED BY

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

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PREFACE

In June, 1888, the Fifteenth Conference met in Buffalo and in the same month in 1909 the Thirty-sixth Conference assembled in the same city. The evolution in charity and correction during the twenty-one years' interval is well marked in the enlarged membership and the varied program.

In 1888, Preventive Philanthropy was just gaining recognition, but the problems of ameliorative relief were the urgent ones. In 1909 Constructive effort in benevolence fills the position that preventive work had barely attained at the former period; while the theory of Prevention has grown in acceptance until it is a truism to say that poverty is a temporary condition, that it is mainly due to preventable causes, that science has shown us how it may be averted and that benevolence has seized on the method and proposes to put it in practice.

In twenty-one years the problem of the poor has passed over from an affair of the individual to one of the neighborhood. Questions like those of labor and its reward, city congestion, etc., which seemed proper to the domain of Economics are now considered from the philanthropic side, if not exclusively, yet so largely that they belong there in popular estimation. Questions of Public Health are recognized to belong in the highest sense to Preventive Philanthropy. Educational reform which shall lead to industrial efficiency is claimed as a concern of Constructive beneficence.

State Supervision and Administration still occupy the center of the stage, but the objects of supervision are multiplied in number and wonderfully varied in kind. Several wholly new methods in care for defectives and dependents have come into existence since 1888, while in penal affairs the changes amount to a revolution. The presidential address of 1888 contained the dictum that the care of consumptives was no part of the duty of the state. Today the state without one or more sanatoria for the tuberculous is indeed backward.

Above all, it is being more and more recognized that securing Justice rather than giving relief is the supreme development of philanthropy, that Justice is the Highest Charity and that Justice means the equalizing of opportunity in the spirit of human brotherhood.

The proceedings of the Thirty-sixth Conference reflect such conclusions as the above in a striking manner. It is not claimed that all the papers are of equal freshness and value, yet it is confidently asserted that, on the whole, no more timely nor forcible setting forth of the doctrines of the Higher Charity, and none more useful and suggestive to the social worker, than is contained in the volume here presented, has ever been given by the Conference to the Nation.

The Thirty-seventh Conference will meet in St. Louis in May, 1910, and Miss Jane Addams of Hull House is the President.

A. J.

Fort Wayne, Ind., Oct. 1, 1909.

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President's Address

DISASTER RELIEF AND ITS PROBLEMS

BY ERNEST P. BICKNELL, NATIONAL DIRECTOR AMERICAN RED CROSS

The growing interest of men in the welfare of humanity may be likened to the light of the rising sun whose rays at first illumine only the mountain tops, but which, as their angle of incidence increases, search out the shadowed valleys and hidden places of the earth. This simile is a dangerous one and must not be followed to its logical end, else we should have the image of the declining sun and of the deeps falling again into the shadows. Without pursuing the figure to fantastic length, however, it is apparent that the growing light of interest in human welfare for a generation has been progressively penetrating farther and more searchingly into questions of the relation and the duty of society to its weaker members, questions in fact whose answers reveal the very dependence of the sunlit summits of opportunity upon foundations which too long have lain in darkness and neglect.

Step by step we have passed from the general in contemplating the inequalities which separate man from man, and are no longer satisfied with the theory that God made some men to be wretched and others happy, possibly in order that the happy might acquire grace by bestowing alms upon the wretched. And as we have emerged, in our growing light, from that period of sorrowful and sympathetic content, we have found the vast and vague problem of human misery to consist of a multitude of other problems inseparably involved and interwoven, but each more or less concrete and distinctive As these constituent parts of the total sum of distress have been recognized they have been attacked by agencies organized to remove or ameliorate them. Thus we have come today into a condition in which our social work (speaking of the United

States) is a vast complex of activities, each distinct but all inter-related.

These activities are intended to form a continuing effort, limited in time only by the period necessary to fulfill their respective purposes. Each organization or agency specializes within its own field and with study and experience is presumed to become constantly more efficient. We thus have a picture of progress, showing many organized groups of individuals moving forward in parallel lines or toward a common focus, each group immediately and actively interested in its special task, with a more or less clear apprehension of its dependence on and relation to other groups. Each group passes, by orderly and logical steps, from point to point in its progress. The conditions which it is attacking are continuing conditions. What it did last year gave shape and direction to what it is doing this year and this year's work passes smoothly and naturally into that of next year. The object is straight ahead and the line of travel is unbroken and approximately direct.

But occasionally there occurs a great calamity, a fire or flood or earthquake, which goes crashing across all these orderly and familiar lines of social activity. It interrupts the usual life and movement of the community in which it happens. It so distorts and changes conditions of distress that the methods of remedy in common use are no longer appropriate or adequate. It tremendously and instantly increases the need of social helpfulness while crippling or overwhelming the agencies from which succor would normally be expected. It plunges into temporary impotence many persons from whom strength and support might ordinarily be drawn and creates dependents who are not eligible to the accepted methods of treating those in need of help. Nor is the number or magnitude of such calamities small enough to be passed over as negligible. It is doubtful whether those who have not given the subject especial thought comprehend how large a percentage disaster relief forms of all the material relief given for all purposes.

The American Red Cross devotes its energies chiefly to relief made necessary by calamities. It gives help only when

a disaster is of such character or magnitude as to overtax the resources of the community in which the calamity occurs. We will omit for the moment any record of relief which the Red Cross did not itself afford, though much disaster relief is given by other agencies. And yet in the three years from April 1, 1906, to April 1, 1909, the American Red Cross expended for disaster relief the sum of $4,207,043.70. In addition to this it received and distributed supplies of very great value. All of this money and these supplies were derived from private sources. The amount of relief given by this single agency in the past three years is greater than was given in general relief during the same period by all the general relief societies of the ten greatest cities in the United States.

It is true that the demands for disaster relief are irregular and the record of the next three years may show a much smaller total. But experience has amply shown that calamities which require measures of relief beyond the strength of the communities affected occur with a frequency and certainty which forbids any sense of security at any time. In the three years ending April 1, 1909, during which its relief expenditures, as above mentioned, amounted to $4,207,043.70, the American Red Cross participated in the relief work caused by fifteen calamities, namely: California earthquake and fire, Valparaiso earthquake, Gulf storm, Chinese famine, Kingston earthquake, Russian famine, Calabrian earthquake (1907), Mississippi cyclone, South Carolina and Georgia floods, Texas floods, Chelsea (Mass.) fire, Canadian forest fires, Monongah mine explosion, Michigan forest fires and Italian earthquake. This is an average of five calamities a year demanding the attention of the Red Cross. If we extend our survey over a greater period and include the aggregate amount of American contributions, through all channels, to the assistance of communities which have suffered from great calamities during the last twenty-five years we find that while statistics are incomplete we are safe in fixing the amount at not less than $35,000,000.

Little of an exact character can be stated concerning the losses which have been suffered through calamities during

twenty-five years or even during the last three years, nor would such information, without thorough analysis, have especial value in this relation. It is evident, however, that thousands of families have been impoverished, thousands of lives destroyed, and that many thriving communities have been so devastated that years have been required to restore them to a condition of prosperity approaching that which they enjoyed prior to their disasters.

Thus far it has been my purpose to show that relief measures made necessary by great calamities are of importance sufficient to demand thorough, scientific and devoted study and direction along with other serious social needs which are being strongly attacked as they become clearly differentiated. Let us now proceed to a consideration of some of the conditions of need caused by great calamities. The vocabulary of ordinary charitable work provides the nouns and adjectives necessary, but the conditions themselves, because of their exaggerated or distorted form, their unusual combination and the destruction or extreme inadequacy of the ordinary means of remedy, produce problems which are, in many aspects, distinctive, and which, for their solution, require wide departures from, or modifications of, methods in ordinary charitable use.

It is not easy for one who has not been an actual participant to form a just comprehension of the difficulties confronting those charged with the conduct of relief measures following a great disaster. The usual channels through which flow the currents of daily life are congested or destroyed. The fixed points which serve as centers and stays for the community regime are gone. Means of communication are crippled or annihilated. The machinery of society is shattered, homes destroyed, food sources cut off, lighting and water systems broken down, the wheels of industry stopped. Individual losses through death or injury and the destruction of property cause intense excitement and make men unfit for collected thought or calm judgment or action. The familiar agencies to which one would habitually turn for succor and guidance are demoralized or, organized to meet only normal demands, are overwhelmed.

At the instant when food, shelter, health, life itself, hang upon quick decision and action, the obstacles to decision and action reach the point of their most appalling magnitude.

The earthquake and fire in San Francisco drove 300,000 persons to the parks and vacant lands, cut off the water, destroyed the food supply of the city, burned all stores of clothing, ruined the telephone system, the street railways, the lighting system and the sewers, destroyed or damaged the hospitals and other public institutions, blocked the streets with debris, destroyed or paralyzed all commerce and industry, closed the banks and crippled communication with the outer world, while 500 persons were dead in the ruins and thousands were injured.

In Mississippi a year ago a cyclone devastated a large section of country, leveling houses, killing scores of persons, and injuring hundreds, destroying crops, domestic animals, farm buildings and implements. The community, weak in resources, remote, panic stricken, stunned, was prostrate, without food, clothing, medicines, doctors, nurses, hospitals or relief agencies.

In Northern Minnesota last September a forest fire swept across the thriving city of Chisholm, with 5,000 inhabitants, and in an hour the entire population was homeless, all furniture, clothing and food gone, every business establishment in ashes.

A wave of fire raged across the forests and farms of a section of Michigan on October 15, 1908, and in an afternoon laid in waste a hundred square miles of country, converting forests into regiments of blackened skeletons and farms into gray wastes. Two thousand persons lost homes. Forty dead were picked up among the embers of their houses or along the country roads where the fire had overtaken them as they ran, or in the ruins of a railroad train which burned while it was trying to carry women and children to safety.

At twenty-one minutes past five o'clock in the morning of the twenty-eighth of last December occurred the great Italian earthquake. In forty-five seconds the homes of 500,000 persons were destroyed, more than fifty cities and villages were wrecked and near 100,000 persons had perished. Words can-

not describe nor imagination picture the awful conditions which followed. Thousands of wounded were pinioned among the wreckage, thousands were widowed, thousands orphaned. The population, crushed, stunned and scattered, overwhelmed by grief and terror, was helpless. Every conceivable agency for succor belonging to and within the area of ruin was annihilated. Instant action on a gigantic scale was necessary to rescue the wounded and provide food and clothing and shelter for the multitude.

And when the spectacular and the terrifying and the tragic phases of great calamities have passed, the work of relief changes in character, but does not cease. Indeed the relief work consequent to any great calamity passes through two distinct stages, essentially different in many respects, and requiring widely different methods in their administration. In the first or emergency stage, the essentials of relief are the assembling of supplies of food and clothing, the provision of temporary shelter, and of medical and surgical care and the creation of an effective working organization of distribution, with small attention to details and with emphasis on rapidity and decisiveness of action. This is not a time for hesitation over small questions but it requires judgment and firmness and allows little opportunity for discussion or the nice weighing of alternatives. I am almost tempted, in speaking of this stage of calamity relief, to adopt the assertion which an American in Messina, Italy, recently made to me: "It is better to be wrong than slow."

The period of emergency relief is comparatively short and may roughly be said to end when the victims of the calamity have received or are receiving proper medical care, food, clothing and shelter, when families have been united, the dead buried, and the panic among the people quieted. The second stage is that of re-establishing the normal regime within the shattered community. Employment in ordinary vocations must take the place of the made-work substitutes of the emergency period. Business and industry must be set going, the people must be carefully transferred from relief support to dependence upon their own earnings. Schools and churches must resume their ordinary routine. One by one the broken

threads of familiar every-day life, the life of custom and habit, must be reunited. One who has not seen it may hardly comprehend how great is the steadying influence upon a people of restoration to the usual regime of life.

Occupation, renewal of old ties, the old grooves, the old responsibilities and duties and cares, combine to make the community forget its terrors, its griefs, its discontent and hardship, its demoralization and dependence, and return again to the ordered round of wholesome, natural existence. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the obvious fact that this second stage of calamity relief requires the utmost wisdom and skill and patience on the part of those entrusted with its conduct. Here haste must yield to caution. Time is necessary to ascertain the facts on which alone permanently helpful action can be based.

During the emergency stage of relief the people are dealt with in large groups with little attention to the special needs of individuals. The chief object is food for all, clothing and shelter for all. In the rehabilitation stage, the family or the individual becomes the unit of consideration. The past occupation, relationships and manner of life of each family must be ascertained, that the help now to be given may fit the need and produce permanently beneficial results. It is here that those conducting the relief measures find a demand for all their assets of experience and specialized training. They must be able to adapt their knowledge to unfamiliar conditions and their methods to people of independent spirit who find it hard to accept graciously the help which they require. Here indeed is one of the facts which gives distinctiveness to this character of relief administration. The subjects of relief are persons who have reached their state of dependence through no failure of effort, no improvidence or mental or physical incapacity. They are the victims of a misfortune, sudden, overwhelming, unavoidable. The wise and the foolish, the strong and the weak, the thrifty and the thriftless have suffered alike. By inevitable process the capable recover more quickly and are able to go their way. They have resources, material or social, which soon put them upon their feet. At the other extreme are those who were dependent or partially

dependent upon public or private charity before the calamity. They must be maintained until suitable provision can be made for them. Their problem is the familiar one of every community and need only be mentioned here.

Between the strong and those who were already dependent lie the stark difficulties of the situation. In that middle ground are the aged who have lost their little competence, wrung from years of close economy in preparation for their declining days. There are, too, those who were injured and are permanently disabled, the widow, the orphan, the invalid, who had barely enough to keep him in comfort and now has nothing, the men and women just beyond the period of life's greatest activity, who are able to hold their own comfortably with the help of the resources gathered in the days of strength, but who find it bitterly hard to make an entirely new beginning. There are, too, the men who have been retained in places of employment beyond the point of highest usefulness because of faithful service, but who have lost their positions through the calamity. Beyond the years of easy adaptability, habituated to a narrow groove of duty, the task of re-establishing them in self-support is extremely difficult. All these sufferers and others in unusual number require individual attention of the most patient and skillful kind while the ordinary resources and facilities for such service are shattered or impaired.

It may be apropos to illustrate some of the problems of relief following great disasters by a few actual examples drawn from recent experiences. Obviously these problems do not appear one at a time with opportunity to solve the first before the second demands attention.

Consider the conditions caused by the earthquake in Italy a few months ago. The half million persons made homeless by the disaster, according to estimates by Italian officials, occupied half a hundred cities, towns and villages. The total area affected was probably more than one thousand square miles. Many of the smaller towns were in the mountains where they were almost inaccessible to relief agents. The food supplies, medicines and clothing of the cities and towns were destroyed or buried beneath the ruins and the

difficulty of collecting and transporting the meager supplies which might have been spared from the surrounding country was almost insuperable. Fortunately, warships of Russia and England were in near waters and merchant ships were in neighboring ports. All these hurried to the harbors of Messina, Reggio, Catania, etc., and distributed freely and swiftly such stores as they had on board. Large quantities of food and clothing were shipped immediately from Naples, Palermo, Rome, Catania and other cities. This prompt action met the most urgent need for food of the first days in the cities and towns. The people of the smaller communities were able to draw upon the agricultural districts immediately around them.

The ships which flocked into the zone of distress, when they had discharged their cargoes of supplies, took on board thousands of the injured and helpless and conveyed them to places where they could receive care. The hospitals of the large Italian cities were soon crowded with patients and temporary hospitals were quickly filled. Public buildings and large vacant private buildings were converted into refuges. As the earthquake occurred at dawn most of the people were in bed. There was no opportunity to save clothing. The result was that the demand for relief clothing was tremendous. Cold rains fell daily. While there was some lack of food in the earthquake zone, the chief suffering was caused by exposure, and by wounds and illness. Proper provision could not instantly be made for the care of the sick and injured. In order to save lives, thousands of surgical operations were hastily performed under circumstances which involved awful agonies. Gangrene followed upon neglect of wounds and reaped a swift harvest. Babies came prematurely into the world and the story of those little ones and their unhappy mothers is tragedy unspeakable. Buried in the ruins were the living and dead. Frantic attempts at rescue interfered with relief measures and divided the strength of the relief forces.

All houses in the earthquake zone were of masonry. As a rule, the walls were massive, but composed chiefly of irregular stones set in a disproportionately large amount of mortar. The mortar was inferior and the shock of the earth-

quake crumbled it into sand. The ruins, therefore, presented the appearance of undulating beds of sand from ten to thirty feet deep, filled with a mixture of stones and bricks and ragged with the projecting ends of splintered boards, sticks and broken furniture. The crumbled mass was so dense that those buried beneath it were, as a rule, instantly crushed or smothered. This fact of the character of the house construction and the density of the ruins accounts largely for the terrible loss of life. The mortality was correspondingly greater in the larger and more massive houses, which explains the significant statement that the percentage of deaths among the resourceful, intelligent and well-to-do portion of the population was much greater than among the poor who occupied the small houses.

Out of the chaos of the first days certain large problems gradually emerged in a form sufficiently distinct to permit of separate study. The attempts to solve these problems should have a value for other countries because great disasters usually create conditions which in some degree resemble those under discussion. In briefly indicating a few of the larger of these problems, no attempt is made to present them in the order of importance.

A strong central directive agency is one of the first great needs in relief administration. It is only by the instrumentality of such an agency that it is possible to assure attention to all the demands of the situation. In no other way is it possible to avoid confusion and friction or to obtain a full return in relief value for the expenditure of money and effort. Some one person or group must be recognized as the administrative authority. Within a week after the San Francisco disaster all the relief agencies of importance had joined in the creation of a central committee which was supreme. The enormous value of this step can scarcely be overstated. The relief work was laid out according to a plan which left no section of the city uncovered, no class of citizens unattended, no elemental form of relief unprovided. Imagine a condition in which many different agencies were working actively, each without regard to what others were doing. It would have been impossible to trace relief efforts to their results. Too much help would have led to

waste and demoralization in one quarter and too little help in another would have meant suffering and a sense of injustice and neglect. The opportunity to go from agency to agency in quest of help and to "work" all agencies for all that could be got out of them would have meant the vicious triumph of the bold and unscrupulous.

In Italy, following the recent earthquake, there was an absence of this all-important central administration. The Italian Red Cross in general directed its energies toward the care of the sick and wounded. The Central National Committee, created expressly for the occasion, gave attention mainly to general relief. But there was no joint effort and each organization attended to the needs which pressed hardest upon it at the moment. The military and naval authorities were active, the army especially, but with little regard to the Central National Committee or the Red Cross. The Roman Catholic Church, through its parish priests and other representatives, was everywhere busy, but did not co-operate with any other agency. The various provinces of Italy, Venice, Lombardy, Genoa, Rome, Tuscany, etc., raised large relief funds and vast quantities of supplies and sent their own committees to distribute them. Numerous other agencies were also active. The volume of relief effort and activity in the shattered territory, as may be imagined from all this, was tremendous. The zeal and devotion of those who performed the work upon the field was magnificent. But the disadvantages under which they labored were very great and there can be no surprise if the results appear to be smaller than the extent of the relief operations would indicate.

If I may be permitted to diverge a moment at this point, I should like to add that during a period of about two months spent in Italy, studying the relief operations in all parts of the earthquake zone, I neither observed nor authoritatively heard of any dishonest or deliberate diversion of relief funds from their proper disposition. Those in authority were keenly alive to the dangers of the situation and deeply felt the responsibilities of their trusteeship. These men are among the most eminent and most trusted in all Italy. No doubt some graft and dishonesty have crept in here and there among subor-

dinate agents, of which there was necessarily a large number hastily selected. The same was true in San Francisco and will doubtless be true of the next gigantic emergency relief task wherever it may lie. But I give it as my opinion that the great funds given for Italian relief passed into the custody of men of unquestioned integrity and the highest character.

The part which the military arm of a country may properly perform in emergency relief is a subject which has an interest for all countries. Should the service of the army, following a disaster, be confined to the preservation of order? There are those who believe that the soldier, by his training, is unfitted for duties which for their proper discharge require an element of human sympathy. It is contended that his training is for war alone. His natural emotions of sympathy and grief are rigorously suppressed. He is the human being reduced to a machine. He is the personification, in this estimate, of the iron hand of power, of oppression, of force. From this point of view the presence of the army is an affront, a menace. There is, too, among some military officers, a belief that the assignment of soldiers to any duty not immediately related to military service is subversive of discipline and hence to be avoided.

Within the past three years I have had opportunity to observe the extensive employment of soldiers in connection with relief operations following two of the greatest disasters of history, namely, those of California in 1906, and Southern Italy in 1908. The spirit which the soldiery exhibited in both instances was admirable and showed the same elements of human sympathy evinced by the common citizens with the added efficiency which comes of thorough discipline. I am not able to judge whether this participation in relief work caused any deterioration in the value of the men as soldiers. It is, however, not easy to believe that this contact with their fellows in times of keen distress could have failed to make of them better citizens and better men, and if this be true, one is reluctant to believe it could have made of them poorer soldiers.

The presence of soldiers invariably had the effect of allaying excitement, of giving a sense of confidence and security

to the weak and of suppressing the lawless and selfish. Soldiers are accustomed to team work and to obey instructions. They do not yield to sudden impulses. They do not expect to abandon their posts when they grow weary or when the weather is inclement. They come calmly into a scene of confusion and distraction and do not lose their heads or forget the duty they are sent to perform. They are accustomed to dealing with large numbers of people. They are familiar with setting up tents, organizing camps, establishing field kitchens and dining rooms and hospitals. They know how to make the best use of inadequate facilities. Their officers are picked men who have won their rank by proving their possession of qualities of leadership. In the course of my observation I have seen very few instances in which soldiers have lacked the judgment and consideration which should temper their relations with a shattered and grief-torn population. As for myself, I should welcome the presence of the regular soldier as an active factor in any great task of emergency relief and I know of no nobler duty to his country that a soldier can perform in time of peace.

When a disaster of the first magnitude occurs, temporary dispersal of the population is usually suggested and a good deal may often be said in favor of the idea. In the first shock of distress a considerable percentage of the persons affected may be expected to take refuge with friends in other localities. The larger part of the population, however, remains and must be fed and clothed and sheltered by the agencies of relief hastily organized and supported by contributed funds. This is certain to result in congestion, discomfort and insanitary conditions. Now it is contended that if the people who require help could be quickly dispersed and scattered among well-to-do communities within easy access, the big overwhelming relief problem would be broken up into small and easily managed units. The people would be taken to the relief rather than the relief taken to the people. Shelter would be found ready in the public institutions, the vacant houses and the homes of the cities and towns to which the disaster victims were transferred. The personal contact and sympathy of a very large number of helpful people would thus become possible. The

character of the help would be more personal and the recipients of the help would be more comfortably and normally cared for than would be possible on the site of their ruined homes.

These considerations, which have undoubted weight, have never prevailed, so far as I am informed, in the case of any large community. Following the recent Italian disaster, orders were issued that all the survivors remaining in the city of Messina should be transported by ship and rail to other cities. It was believed that this measure would simplify the relief problem, but the chief motive was to save the people from the danger of an epidemic of disease which it was feared would be caused by the unsanitary condition of the ruined city, a condition which was daily growing more threatening. The people refused to leave the ruins. The authorities issued orders that no more relief distribution would be permitted in Messina and the distribution of food and clothing was actually stopped. The people did not yield, but clung to the site of their homes and sullenly defied starvation. In a day or two the authorities surrendered and relief stations were reopened. Behind this obstinacy was a strong element of sentiment. Beneath those ruins lay the bodies of thousands of victims dear to the survivors. The living could not desert their dead. But there were practical reasons. The ruins concealed the valuables and, in innumerable instances, the entire possessions of the inhabitants. It was vitally important in their estimation that these possessions should be recovered as soon as possible and that they should not fall into wrong hands. The feeling that if they were absent they might miss opportunities for employment or for re-engaging in business was also a factor.

Besides these personal considerations it is to be remembered that in the supreme moment when a community is gathering the fragments of its broken life together for a new start, it needs the strength of all its people. There must be united effort and that loyalty to the institutions and peculiar interests of the place which can exist only in the hearts of its own citizens.

In special instances, as in places known to be subject to earthquakes, or volcanic eruptions or floods, the suggestion is made after each recurring disaster that the population be

permanently removed to another site or scattered among other communities. This suggestion is based upon reasons entirely different from those which are intended only to solve the relief problem and should be given separate consideration, but the period of time allotted to this paper will not permit more to be said here than that the natural advantages, the commercial facilities, the property interests, the accustomed adjustment of business and social relations, the home sense, and other ties have always prevented the removal of a population from a dangerous site. The same influences which originally led to the building up of a city operate to retain and re-establish it on the same site.

Administrators of relief after a great calamity invariably find it necessary to determine how far they may legitimately and wisely go in the rehabilitation of individuals and of the community itself. This must be broadly governed by the amount of the relief fund available, but within this limitation the problems are perplexing. It is evident that conditions as they existed before the disaster cannot be fully restored. In the language of Dr. Edward T. Devine, "The relief committee cannot take the place of Providence." The people to be helped, with few exceptions, were independent before the disaster and were entirely self-supporting. Continued and minute supervision of their affairs by the relief agents would be resented or would weaken their independence. At the same time an outright gift of considerable value will frequently lead to wastefulness and may entirely fail to accomplish its object of removing its recipient permanently from the need of further relief. Shall people who were in business for themselves be re-established in business through relief funds? If to this question an affirmative answer be given, other questions instantly spring up. Shall the man who was the more successful and had the larger business and consequently sustained the greater loss be given the same amount of relief as the man who was less successful, whose loss was consequently smaller, but who is the more helpless and less resourceful of the two? Shall a premium be placed on efficiency or inefficiency? Shall relief money ever be so applied as to place people in better economic condition than they were before the disaster? In San Fran-

cisco many persons who had never owned homes were encouraged to buy inexpensive lots on which they made first payments and on which small houses were built for them at the cost of the relief fund. The same course was followed in Chisholm, Minnesota, after a forest fire had destroyed that town.

Illustrating other problems, some concrete examples may be given. Relief funds were used in San Francisco to repair streets and sewers, to maintain the city department of health, to build a home for the aged and infirm, to assist in rebuilding and endowing certain charitable institutions. This helped thousands of individual victims of the disaster and incidentally helped the municipality. After the forest fires in Northern Michigan in 1908, many farmers were without income or a means of livelihood. Relief funds were used to establish a sawmill. The farmers all had timber which could be marketed, or could find employment in the woods. The sawmill provided the market and set the entire surrounding population in the way of earning money. These same farmers had horses and cattle which would not be needed during the ensuing winter and which could only be maintained at considerable expense. Should these animals have been sold and the money applied to living expenses, the building of homes, etc.? The relief committee said not. These animals would be absolutely necessary the following spring, when prices would be high and the farmers without money. Therefore, the relief funds were drawn upon to provide food and shelter for the temporarily useless and expensive horses and cattle. In Italy relief funds have been used to build hotels in the cities of Messina and Reggio, because in order that the wheels of business may again be set in motion, it is necessary that persons coming to those cities on business may have shelter and food.

Occupation and employment for the people displaced by a disaster are among the most important means of restoring normal life. Idleness leads by rapid steps to discontent, disorder and pauperism. The re-establishment of means of earning a living is the key to any relief situation. In San Francisco the great camps were centers of complaint and in some instances of disorder and lawlessness. In Italy the refuges,

crowded with idle people, became terribly unsanitary, morals deteriorated and crimes were committed as the occupants rapidly degenerated to a condition of indifference and contented inactivity. The swift relapse of human beings into conditions of savagery when the spur of example and need are removed, forms always one of the gravest dangers of a situation such as is here under discussion. I wish it were possible here to give some account of the extremely interesting and inspiring experiment in providing employment for earthquake victims conducted at Syracuse, Sicily, by Dr. Katharine B. Davis, of Bedford, New York, who happened to be in Italy when the earthquake occurred.

The care of the children becomes a matter of instant concern in the work of disaster relief. Exposure and privation affect them first of all. To protect them from the unwholesome influences of the camps and refuges, and the evil effects of the removal of discipline and home control, constitutes in itself a most difficult problem. Especially must immediate attention be given to those children whose parents have been killed or injured. In Italy it was at once apparent that large measures of an especial character must be taken to provide for the orphans. By act of parliament a corporation was created under the patronage of the Queen and styled the Patronata Regina Elena. To this body was given powers similar to those which, in the United States, are vested in boards of children's guardians. It became forthwith the legal guardian of all children made orphans by the earthquake. Some conception of the gigantic task which rests upon this body may be gained from the statement that the number of orphans already within its care is about five thousand, five hundred. These children are now temporarily scattered among the homes and orphanages all over Italy, but extremely suggestive plans are in preparation for giving them systematic instruction in agriculture and horticulture in farm colonies in Calabria and Sicily and industrial training in the manufacturing cities of Milan, Genoa, Turin, etc. The result of this large effort will be worthy of world-wide observation.

While I have attempted to outline only a few of the problems which demand solution in the conduct of adequate

relief measures following great calamities, it is hoped some hint has been given of their magnitude and complexity. I have only partially succeeded in my purpose if I have failed to show that such relief consists of much more than the distribution of food, clothing and shelter, or that the task is worthy of the attention of students and trained administrators of measures of relief and social reconstruction. That disaster relief has not heretofore generally received such attention is well known.

No single agency has devoted itself specifically to this large duty in the United States except the American Red Cross, and even the Red Cross has usually contented itself with the collection of relief money and supplies which it has delivered over to temporary local committees of inexperienced persons for actual distribution. The Red Cross in 1905 was reorganized and given a quasi-official status by special act of Congress. Since that time it has been gradually entering upon a more positive and active policy. Its purpose is to follow principles and adopt methods which are in full accord with the progress of this era of social activity and advancement. It seeks to establish close relations with other great social agencies and to avail itself of the services of trained executives and advisors. One step toward this end has been taken in the employment of an executive officer whose entire time is devoted to the strengthening and directing of its activities. Another step is the formation of a National Emergency Relief Board, which numbers among its members such leaders as Mr. Robert W. de Forest, Dr. Edward T. Devine, Miss Mabel T. Boardman, Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Miss Mary E. Richmond, Mrs. John M. Glenn, Mrs. William K. Draper and Mr. Francis H. McLean. This board has immediate control of the emergency relief work of the Red Cross in the United States. A third forward step is the creation of a special class of membership into which will be invited the strongest and most representative and efficient charity organization societies of the country. In accepting this membership these societies will become an integral part of the American Red Cross. They will pledge themselves, on call from the Red Cross, to participate in the conduct of relief following

disasters within their respective sections of the country or to send trained workers, when needed, to any point within the United States, near or far, there to form a group of experienced workers under the Red Cross flag.

By these means and others based on growing experience, it is hoped that the gigantic problems of disaster relief may be attacked with the same thoroughness and progressive efficiency which has characterized other social efforts of the last quarter century.

The Conference Sermon

CHARITY VERSUS JUSTICE *

BY RABBI STEPHEN S. WISE, PH. D., FREE SYNAGOGUE, NEW YORK

Men and Women of the Human Catholic Church, Brothers and Sisters in the Church of the Disciples of the Humanity of God and the Divinity of Men: I rejoice indeed at the privilege which is mine of addressing this congregation dedicated to the furtherance of charity or social service under the peculiar inspiration of religion. As a teacher of religion and a soldier in the army of social servants, I believe and teach that charity or social service is applied religion; and religion that is not applied is no religion. Charity, or social service, is the heart of religion as it is the religion of the heart.

It is often urged that sociology or charity or social service, as it is variously phrased, cannot take the place of religion, for religion is the root of the tree of life, and social service is only the fruit of that tree. But would you wish to have the tree all root and trunk, with no blossom and no fruit? It may be true that religion is not social service; that charity or social service cannot take the place of religion. But you and I know that vital religion cannot exist without social service.

The church has erred when it has failed to emphasize the social needs of our times. Men are not enticed away from the church by the great humanitarian movements of our age; they are alienated by the church in the measure in which it fails to place utmost emphasis upon the message of the social needs. After they have been alienated from the church they may drift into one or another of the great humanitarian

*This sermon was stenographically reported, and was abridged and edited by the Editor of the Proceedings, who must be held responsible for its literary form, etc.

movements which are attracting multitudes of men and women in our day. One of the causes that have repelled men from the church has been that the church has not vitally concerned itself with the affairs of this life, because this life is hardly worth while; because this is only a foretaste of the life that is to be. The old tradition is still too widely held that the office of religion is not with living things, but is to guard the graves of the dead. But you and I are coming to feel that the highest office of religion is not to guard the graves of the dead, but to safeguard the rights of the living; not to perpetuate childish rites, but to protect and conserve the rights of every man, woman and child; not so much to dwell upon the music of the choir invisible, as to bring some melody, some harmony, into the discordant life of the obviously disinherited of the earth; not so much to dream about the golden-paved streets of a Jerusalem that is to be, as to secure clean streets and decent cities and livable homes for men and women and children here and now.

I do not say that the church is to be substituted by social service, but I do maintain that religion today needs to be rehumanized, resocialized. And on the other hand, charity or social service needs the uplift of religion. You and I, social workers, religionists, have no right to look up and forever say, "Father," unless we are brothers. We will not, I believe, deal with each other as brothers unless we look up and say, "Father."

The first, the most urgent need, alike of the Church and of religion, today and always, is the power of vision. The religious teacher is the man who sees clearly and speaks truly. So must the social worker be. Only the man who sees clearly can speak truly. Woe unto that man or woman who sees clearly and yet speaks not truly, daringly, if need be. There is need today by the teacher of religion and the social worker of the vision that signifies not only acquaintance with effects, but insight into causes. Ibsen has said that the devil has no stauncher ally than want of perception. The social worker ought to be the seer of his age, not so much to see for men as to help the men and women of the world to see for themselves.

I have often wondered whether it was so very laudable in him who said, "Eyes was I to the blind, feet was I to the lame." You are not to be eyes to the blind. You are to help men and women of dim and blurred vision to see for themselves. You must help them to recover the power and the gift of vision. A large number of the evils that abound in our generation are due to the want of real vision. The gift of vision is the greatest need of our age. Until this gift becomes ours, until it enables us to peer down into the realities of things as they are, we shall not begin to understand the nature and magnitude of the social problem which is about us.

Time was when the world of the poor was divided into two classes—God's poor and the devil's poor. God's poor were made up of the unfortunate, the unhappily widowed and orphaned, those who had been stricken by mishap or accident. The devil's poor were made up of the idler, the unindustrious, the improvident, the dishonest, as they were styled. Today the gift of vision is enabling us to understand that in our industrial era we can no longer draw the distinction between God's poor and the devil's poor. Most of those whom our fathers styled the devil's poor have been bedeviled into poverty by us and by conditions of which we are as much or as little the masters as the victims themselves. If a man was believed to be one of God's poor, because his poverty, his misery, his squalor, came to him through no fault of his own, he was treated as an unfortunate being who had to be lifted up and above the results of the untoward circumstances in life which chanced to be his. When the poverty was believed to be wholly the fault of the individual, he was dealt with as a criminal. But today we are beginning to see that poverty is not altogether, nor yet even largely, a chance or mischance result; but that it is usually either a symptom of social disease or a mark of social crime. And if it be a social disease, or one of the stigmata of social crime, the remedy for it must be social.

Some illustrations may help us to understand what is meant by social disease and crime. Time was when the drunkard was held to be a man who had succumbed to an unnatural, inexcusable appetite. Is there a man or woman in this room today who will venture to say that every drunkard is alto-

gether responsible for the disease which has fastened itself upon him? Who knows how much of the drunkenness that obtains today, outside of the circle of the so-called four hundred, is caused by unendurable industrial conditions, by underfeeding, by unfit housing, by bad food ill prepared? Drunkenness is one of the symptoms rather than one of the causes of social disease.

Under the old pre-industrial order, the men who would not toil were few in number; they were the abnormal or the subnormal. There was work ready for men and in the main men were ready to work. But, today, under the industrial era, the idle are not the voluntary idlers, but the involuntarily unemployed. The unemployed masses are made up today of the vagrant or tramp, who must be treated as one diseased; again, of the temporarily unemployed, it were almost truer to say, the temporarily employed; third, of the unemployed who are permanently worked out, useless, cast away to the human rubbish-heap, but, unlike other rubbish, conscious, sentient, needy; and, last, of those who, being badly born, permanently underfed, noxiously housed, ill-environed in every way, are not steadily and permanently employable.

The orphaned, touching upon another type of the needy, are not a limited class, but make up a large army, many of whom are the children of the victims of industrialism, which slays fathers without redress to wife or children. The sick and the stricken we now know to be the underfed, the ill housed, the underoxygenated. It is true, as has been said, that lack of oxygen enervates conscience, but it is truer still that the lack of conscience enervates the oxygen breathed by the millions in city tenements and city streets. The improvident were once reckoned among the devil's own poor, but today men can lay nothing by for a rainy day because they haven't enough for the dry days. Seeing that improvidence is a vice only of those who have, pennilessness in old age has ceased to mean improvidence and is becoming more and more inevitably the lot of the worker who survives into old age.

I have said enough touching this aspect of the theme to enable you to understand the truth I am seeking to make clear, that only through the exercise of the faculty of vision can we

understand that the old, deluding distinction between the devil's poor and God's poor must pass away, and that we must face poverty and misery as symptoms of social disease, or stigmata of social crime, and that these must be remedied socially. I wonder if you will consider me very heretical as a teacher of religion if I urge that if we have the gift of vision, you and I shall commit the heresy of unbelief in the prophecy of the Old and New Testament alike, to the effect that "The poor shall never cease from the land," and "The poor ye have with you always." It is far more heretical to give assent to the seeming prophecy that the poor we must have with us always than to say the great teachings of Moses and of Jesus have helped us to a larger vision, enabling us to understand that poverty is not only curable, but preventable; and that we shall help to bring to pass the day when poverty shall be no longer accepted by men and women as an inevitable institution. I am tempted to give you a bit of Old Testament exegesis. The fifteenth chapter of Deuteronomy does not say, "For the poor shall not cease from the land." I read my Hebrew differently, and the word of Deuteronomy is this: "Even though the poor should not cease from the land, still would I command thee saying 'Thou shalt open wide thy hand to the needy.'" As for the words of Jesus, "The poor ye have with you always," all men and women who so cheerfully accept that as eternal truth, I would remind of a greater word of Jesus, a word which He borrowed from His and from my fathers, a word which, if men would take to heart, would mean the end of our acceptance as truth of the saying that the poor we shall have with us always, namely, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." You cannot reconcile that with "The poor ye have with you always." Either love of neighbor or poverty must go. The golden rule on one hand and poverty and misery on the other cannot forever coexist.

We must not accept it as truth that poverty is unpreventable; that misery is incurable. Charity is a social experiment. It is an attempt to solve social maladjustment. Well, then, let us be honest about it. Let us deal seriously with serious things. We must seek to eradicate the causes that make ceaseless battles with heartbreak necessary. If I might ven-

ture a word of counsel this afternoon to you men and women, captains in the army of social service, it would be to urge the importance of the gift of vision, lest charity, instead of being benignant and blessed, become hurtful and even fatal to our civilization.

Very lately we heard a word spoken by a wise and thoughtful man, "Philanthropy is one of the safeguards of democracy." If by that is meant that love of man by man, neighborliness, is essential to democracy, then I assent to that word with all my heart. But if it mean that charity is needed as a form of social insurance, then I protest against that teaching. I would rather have every charitable institution and agency in America blotted out of existence than to have charity accepted as a safeguard of democracy. We want no safeguards of democracy. We want this democracy of ours to be its own safeguard. The safeguard of democracy is an intelligent, happy, well-circumstanced, free people. You cannot long have a democracy that needs safeguards. If the masses are ill-fed, enfeebled, dishonored, devitalized and morally decadent, what is to become of your democracy? I am not half as much concerned about the safety of our democracy as I am concerned about conserving the welfare of its citizens. I would hate charity, I should treat it as a calamity instead of welcoming it as a mitigator of social wrong, if I believed that charity were to become, as it sometimes threatens to be, accepted in condonation of social crime.

Not long ago I read in one of the foremost religious journals of America an article descriptive of one of the mighty captains of industry. It all but apotheosized him. This religious journal spoke sneeringly of the little scruples that stand in the way of success, and concluded with the words, "Men, singly or in groups, are crushed if they camp before this man's target." And the article continued, "But this Thor-like man, this invincible hater of his enemies, is a man of great-hearted charity." That is a lie. No man can be a man of great-hearted charity if men singly or in groups are crushed when they camp before his target. That means that this man is a captain of warfare; that he bruises and crushes and maims and kills; and that then he sends his ambulances into the field

and carries away the wounded and the dying. There can be no charity in the soul of a man consciously or unconsciously committed to a program as the result of which men singly or in groups are crushed if they camp before his target. You may be willing to accept that man's charities, because he gives by the millions. But nothing could be more hurtful to the very life of our democracy than to accept the teaching that a man can be great-hearted in charity and yet crush men singly or in groups if they camp before his target.

If we have not the gift of vision, we of the army of social servants, we shall not understand the very peculiar duty that is ours, and the special danger which surrounds us. What is the immediate effect of charity or social service? Is it true or not that the immediate effect of charity is to hide from sight, in whole or in part, the human evidences of social maladjustment? Is it true that the social worker, unconsciously, unwittingly and involuntarily, cannot help removing from sight the many evidences of social wrongs and errors? I wonder whether you will consider my own creed very crude—my idea primitive and childish, and I say this not without some understanding of the danger of misunderstanding—I sometimes yearn for the return of the day when the poor, the needy, the broken, were seen of men. A woman in New York a few months ago at a meeting conducted by a social worker who had spoken of the distressing consequences of involuntary unemployment, asked the question, "Do you mean to say, sir, that there is a man in New York tonight who must go to bed supperless?" Now the serious thing is, first, you have not insisted that social agencies shall be more adequate; second, you have not compelled such women to know the tragic truth touching the problem of unemployment as you and I have seen it during the past two years.

It is your duty to bring home to men and women the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, concerning the circumstances in life of those to whom you owe a duty, whom you purport to foster, to care for and to defend. You are the betrayers of those whom you purport to serve, unless your service includes the bringing to all men the truth, and the whole truth, concerning the depths of misery which charity can never more

than palliate. Instead of receiving the gratitude of those you serve, you deserve to be scourged by them, if under the cloak of charity you are silent touching the iniquities under which men and women suffer. You owe the same duty to the men and women who are helping you do the things which you believe ought to be done. The unthinking do not wish to know the full truth. But you owe it to them to tell them the truth.

The social worker must not succumb to the danger of keeping poverty in all its ugly nakedness from the sight of the well-to-do nor of suffering so-called charity to be and to remain impersonal. An English writer on "Human Justice for Those at the Bottom" has put it well: "The part that money plays is so subordinate. It has been by inhumanity that these people reached their present condition; it is only by humanity that their condition can be remedied." People, who are ready to make gifts in charity but not to give themselves, ought to be told that the gift without the giver is not only bare but no gift at all. They are like the mayor in Ibsen's Brand:

> "At least the sacrifice no worse is
> Than drafts upon good people's purses;
> The age is too humane to bring
> Any more costly offering."

The giving of money instead of service is to be compared to the hiring of a substitute instead of volunteering to serve in war. The highest charity demands your money and your life, your purse and your personal serving.

In the working out of charity it needs to be said that absent treatment may be efficacious in the treatment of imaginary diseases of the individual, but it is most inefficacious in dealing with the real diseases of the social body. Check books may pay bills, but they do not suffice to discharge social obligations. Touch the button and we do the rest may be a valid rule between superior and inferior, but it cannot be a rule of guidance as between equals. There are two dangerous classes in a democracy, the unemployed who vainly hunger to labor and to serve, and the leisured and overfed, who will neither toil nor serve. The so-called social class, if it serve not, is anti-social. There are no neutrals in the warfare of humanity. The social problem can

no more be solved by social workers alone, however wise and consecrated, than priests alone can solve the problem of religion. The one as truly as the other is a matter of right living by all men.

Almost the highest value of social serving lies in its re-socializing the sundered fragments of life. With the passing of neighborliness, social or anti-social stratification has set in. Social serving can do much to bridge the chasm which has been made. But the evils of stratification cannot be overcome by social servants, unless these learn to look upon the poor not as freaks but as humans—just ourselves with less of possessions. Freakish are the undiscerning who think of the poor as peculiar and abnormal creatures of another world. The evils of stratification can be effectively combated only by such as recognize and rejoice in the supremacy of the claim of human kinship.

As a substitute for justice, charity is irredeemably and hopelessly bankrupt. Charity can never be a substitute for justice, but it must ever be a supplement to justice—crown and complement of justice. The charity of today must not alone be the justice of the morrow, but pillared upon justice eternal. Charity can never make justice superfluous. What injustice hath done, justice alone can restore. The charity that does nothing more than temper preventable woe tampers with the stream of justice. We have had effective injustice and ineffectual charity; we would have effective justice and effectual charity. Charity often demoralizes. Justice ever democratizes.

No wiser word on the question has ever been spoken than that of Theodore Parker: "We need the justice which removes causes as well as the charity that palliates effects." The higher charity has approximated to and adumbrated justice. The highest charity will be justice. The higher charity has dealt with curable woe and misery; the highest charity will deal with preventable woe and wrong. There are some, indeed, says Ernest Crosby, who would leave things as they are and accept the permanent substitution of libraries for justice, but they are not many. These are like the man who in jail was assured that he would have justice. That's what I am afraid of, was his answer. Is charity to become the last refuge of such as are fearful of justice?

This Conference must dare to say, "Mankind must be in the saddle and ride things. The whole is greater than the part. Justice is more than charity. Man is more than property." This Conference must dare to repeat the creed of the Hebrew prophet, "Justice, justice shalt thou pursue." Do justice, love mercy. Justice first, then mercy. Justice first, justice ever; mercy, charity, love, superadded. Mills said, "We have had the age of chivalry, the age of generosity and the age of mercy, and now we need the age of justice." Ruskin cried out with sarcasm, "As much charity as you please, but no justice." But we say, "As much charity as you please, but ever justice."

"Thoren Wir, auf Linderung zu hoffen,
Wo einzig Heilung lindert."

I am a private in the army of social service, because given me is the high privilege of being a teacher of religion. I turn to you, men and women, today, and in the name of a prophet of America, in the name of a mighty teacher of religion, I voice his prophecy and his prayer: "In what a glorious time we live! Was there ever so much to do?"

Children

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY JOHN BARRETT MONTGOMERY, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE MICHIGAN STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Children has prepared a program having "Good Citizenship" for its basic thought. Its opening topic is the Juvenile Court. Nothing else in recent years has been introduced in the sphere of civic philanthropy of such great value or far-reaching influence.

> "Justice," said Daniel Webster, "is the great interest of man on earth; it is the ligament which holds civilized beings and civilized nations together. Wherever her temples stand, and so long as it is duly honored, there is a foundation for social security and progress of the race, and whoever labors on this edifice with usefulness and distinction, whoever clears its foundations, strengthens its entablatures or contributes to raise its august dome still higher in the skies, connects himself in name and fame and character with that which must be as durable as the frame of human society."

The Juvenile Court movement is a worthy attempt to raise the dome of justice into the higher realm of mercy and philanthropy.

It will be the pleasure of those having this topic under consideration to show how this court of justice to children acts as a mediator between the public and the individual as well as between members of the same household, and encourages and inspires our dependent boys and girls to good citizenship. To produce a good citizen, however, it is sometimes necessary to resort to strenuous means. This brings us to our second general theme: "The Breaking Up of Families." "A happy family," says Browning, "is but an earlier heaven." Some of us might

be persuaded to believe that the converse could be proven. Henry Ward Beecher once said:

> "If God has taught us all truth in teaching us to love, then he has given us an interpretation of our whole duty to our household. We are not born as the partridge in the wood or the ostrich in the desert, to be scattered everywhere, but we are to be grouped together and brooded by love and reared day by day in that first of churches, the family."

The speakers who have this topic under consideration have had extended experience in child saving work. They have sought diligently to hold families together because they realize that a "home can never be transferred, never repeated in the experience of an individual. The place consecrated by parental love, by the innocence and sports of childhood, and by the first acquaintance of the heart with nature, is the only true home." Nevertheless, they have been obliged to separate families, and it will be their privilege to show us under what conditions such separations may become necessary in order to attain the end sought—good citizenship.

For those children who must be taken from their parents and for those whose parents have abandoned them, or are dead, other citizen-making agencies must be called into service and entrusted with that sacred responsibility. The most prominent among them are the agencies of the state and private charities. Speakers of wide experience have been chosen by the committee to explain the workings of these agencies under the topic, "The Functions of State and Private Charities in the Care of Dependent and Neglected Children," and to show how they, too, aid in making good citizens.

Your committee neither expects nor desires to work up a spirit of jealousy in the exploitation of this topic, but rather to show the efficiency of each in its community or commonwealth. To say that the functions of the state are superior to those of private charities, we have only to point to Massachusetts to have it refuted. To say private charities are superior to those of the state, we are immediately cited to Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota for denial. And to say that either

of these, taken separately, is superior to all of them in combination, would hardly accord with the experiences of such states as Indiana, Ohio, California and New York. Therefore, it is the expectation and desire of the committee that these very important aids to good citizenship be treated wholly on their individual merits, so that the work being carried on in the different states under either or all of these will be strengthened by the new light thrown upon them in this convention, and that we can go back to our homes encouraged and inspired to greater efforts under whatever plan we are operating.

There comes a time, however, when dependent children become independent young men and young women, when the crutches of public and private charity are cast aside and they walk alone, but unfortunately their paths are full of pitfalls. The world is peopled with all kinds of humanity, and our institution wards, released from restraint, become easy prey to vice and crime through the influence of wicked and degenerate companions, and the efforts of courts and charitable agencies to make good citizens of them are sometimes baffled at the very moment of success.

This fact brings into relief the importance of still another aid to good citizenship. The "After Care of Institution Children," therefore, is the topic chosen by your committee under which this most important period in a child's life will be considered. To produce the greatest efficiency there must be combined efforts in the operations of these aids to good citizenship, and Dr. Hart will show us tonight, in his discussion of the topic, "Unity in Child-Helping Work," how it can be brought about.

Thus step by step your committee has endeavored to show how these charitable agencies, working hand in hand with other child-saving influences, help to lay a worthy foundation for society. But better than the laying of foundations for society are the satisfactions of directing helpless, homeless lives into the paths of peace and happiness, and of turning the wide world into a garden blossoming everywhere with the flowers of charity.

"Every good act is charity, your smiling in your brother's face is charity, an exhortation of your fellow men to virtuous deeds is equal to almsgiving, your putting a wanderer on the right road is charity, your assisting the blind is charity, your removing stones and thorns and other obstructions from the road is charity, your giving water to the thirsty is charity. A man's true wealth hereafter is the good he does in this world."

With old Abou Ben Adhem, the cry of every man and woman in this Conference is: "Write my name then as one who loves his fellow men."

WHAT ONTARIO IS DOING FOR CHILDREN

BY J. J. KELSO, SUPERINTENDENT OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN FOR PROVINCE OF ONTARIO

The proper safeguarding of childhood is the best method of saving the community from crime, pauperism, social wreckage and dependency. We are inclined to regard the work of today in philanthropy as a matter of recent discovery. We forget that we are simply putting into more extensive practice the methods that have been long in existence.

When we were planning to establish a children's protectorate in Ontario, we surveyed the whole field. That was seventeen years ago, and at that time we found many splendid organizations doing great work in the world. Across the Atlantic we found the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children carried on by Benjamin Waugh in Great Britain, and the organization conducted by Dr. Barnardo of London, who gathered up vagrant and neglected children and put them in proper condition to bring to Canada and place them in country and village homes, that they might be far removed from interfering and worthless parents. We found that in Australia for many years there had been a method of boarding out dependent children in village homes until they were self-supporting.

Then coming across to this country we found a great work going on in New York, where Charles Loring Brace was at

the head of the Children's Aid Society, and the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children had done much to prepare the way for the work we are doing now.

We sometimes think that the probation officer is something of recent date. But we found that they had worked that problem out in Massachusetts long before it had been thought of in the west, and that state is entitled to credit for much of the modern work that has been done for the child in this generation.

We also studied the methods of Michigan, represented by our chairman here tonight, where they have a State Home or School into which are gathered the neglected and homeless children of the state, and after a short period of training are placed out in foster homes throughout the country. The good points of all these different methods were incorporated in our Children's Act in Ontario.

When our government was studying this question, it decided just to make the way easy for philanthropic people to look after children. It thought it would be a mistake to create any great state institution, and take away from the good people the privilege of helping dependent children. So our system provides for a Children's Aid Society being organized in each of our cities and towns. We started with one society, and today we have sixty, all branches of the one organization, and all having the same constitution and the same methods of work.

The agent of the Children's Aid Society in a city or town is probation officer, and courts are required to inform him when a boy or girl is arrested. Before the case can be tried this probation officer is expected to investigate the whole surroundings, and to recommend to the judge what in his opinion is the best action to be taken.

We have had the Juvenile Court Law and practice in all the chief cities of Ontario for the past sixteen years, but we didn't realize what a big thing we had there until it was taken up by Chicago and Denver, and made famous all over the world.

The Children's Aid Societies have official recognition by the government. They are an arm of the government, and all the forms used and all the different leaflets and booklets are sup-

plied by the government to the societies free of expense. The provisions defining neglect are much the same as exist in all civilized countries today. Every child under sixteen who is in any kind of improper home surroundings can be brought to court as a neglected child. When a child is committed to the society it must be placed in a foster home as speedily as possible. We have about five thousand children who have been dealt with in this way, in addition to thousands of children whose home life has been made clean and endurable.

These Children's Aid Societies, if not properly watched and assisted, will become moribund—pass out of existence in some cases, and in others lose their enthusiasm and not do the most efficient kind of work. To meet that exigency the government has provided a state department. There has been agitation for years in the United States to secure a federal bureau of child saving. We have a Government Children's Department which directs and supervises the work which is carried on by these societies throughout the country. We organize in every center of population, and if at any time a society goes out of existence, an agent is sent to re-organize it.

The moment a child is placed in a foster home, a report is sent to the central office. A small society would not be able to send an agent to visit that child in its foster home two or three hundred miles away, so we have this system that the societies report all their children to the central office, and the children are visited and looked after at the expense of the government.

Some members of the Conference have said that there is danger in this method of bringing in political influence by having the wrong persons appointed as visitors for the children, but we have never found that politics enters into this class of work. We have all these children recorded by counties and districts, and we have them all visited and looked after. Sometimes the society which originally placed a certain child has passed out of existence, and it may be necessary to change the child into another home. We take charge of that child at the expense of the government, and the child is taken to a shelter, and as soon as possible provided with another foster home.

We change children at the rate of one a day. Sometimes it is the fault of the child, sometimes the fault of the foster parents,

and sometimes the fault of neither. Sometimes the child does not fit, or has some defect that needs treatment.

In this large family of children we study the individual child, and if the foster parents report at any time that a child is sick, or has developed any disease, or is cross-eyed or club-footed, we send for the child and have it cared for in our Children's Hospital. When it is fit to go out to another home it is placed either with the same people or in a new home. We don't believe in having any great central institution; our children's shelters as a rule do not have more than eight to twelve children at a time.

By this method we are able to bring a splendid individual influence to bear on the child, and in all our work we recognize that the most important thing is to try and get a child to accept religion. So we bring religious influences to bear on all our children. We send them to church and to revival meetings and try in every way to bring Christianity into their lives.

We have a thousand voluntary workers all over the province. We try to get everybody interested in the children's cause, and provide all the necessary literature. We advertise the claims of the child and point out the best method of dealing with it. During the past sixteen years we have issued reports and pamphlets and leaflets to the extent of three hundred thousand copies. This year we are sending out over twenty thousand. We also endeavor to get all our editors and clergy interested, and in this way we are developing a wonderful public sentiment which is the surest way to protect the child.

We do not take the child away from its home if it can be helped. We try to make the home clean and suitable for the child to remain in it. In the early days we frequently took children from their parents by legal action, but we realized that that was not the best way. We have mothers and fathers promising all sorts of reform if they can have their children left, and we are doing better work today because we are improving the homes and the home life of these children. We find in nearly every case that the child is not at fault, and in some cases the parents are not. Often the trouble is that these people are crowded into wretched tenements, the parents get discouraged and

take to drink and the children get careless. If we had proper social conditions we would have fewer neglected children. We try to make social service the aim of our Children's Aid Society and get the communities to look into these neglected conditions. We advocate shorter hours of labor, better wages, better sanitary conditions in the homes, playgrounds, social centers, and everything that can tend to bring some measure of justice and of comfort into the lives of the poor who struggle against so much injustice in this world.

Our children's law is seldom criticized adversely, because we try to get everybody interested, and the moment any one can suggest a better method, we are ready to consider it, and adopt it if it is found practicable. The great advantage of our system is that we cover the whole field and unite public and private charity. From the central office we sometimes send a man a day's journey to look after a complaint which involves the safeguarding of a child. We send out traveling secretaries, and missionaries who make addresses on the protection of children. We don't do this just once a year, but in about three months after a man has visited a place we send another one of a different type, and this process of education means the strengthening of public sentiment for the protection of children. We have our men look after the villages as well as the cities, for sometimes we find the worst conditions prevailing in small places. In our great northwest, which is developing so rapidly, we find it necessary to talk to these towns in that northern country about proper municipal development. Those people went out there to make money and they will build a house on a twenty-five foot lot when from their very doors they can look a hundred miles across the prairies. They have made no provision for playgrounds and for parks in some places. We try to urge them to consider these things and to provide for the generation of children yet unborn.

If you were to come to our country, we couldn't show you fine institutions like Mr. Montgomery can show. But we have these small shelters and these small societies all doing their share, and in the aggregate carrying on a great work for the children of our country. And it is a delightful thing to see how these children are progressing. Children who were placed in

foster homes in the early days are found now in almost every walk in life. There is only one place where we do not find them, and that is the jail. I don't mean to say that they never do any wrong, or commit any of the offenses for which children are arrested. Sometimes they have given us cause for anxiety by their misdeeds. But the moment we hear of a child in a foster home having gotten into trouble we send a representative to take charge of that child, and we say that we will be responsible for this child and that we will see that the proper methods are taken to correct his faults. Such children have often gone to other homes and lived down those offenses. Sometimes the first offense has been the turning point in a child's life and led him to a better life. We must be patient and kind. If we can tide them over the dangers between the fourteenth and sixteenth year, when they want to run away and be independent, we have gained a great advantage.

In closing I would urge that we study carefully each individual child, his mental, spiritual and physical needs, so that we may equip him well for the duties and responsibilities of life and thus add to the population of our country young people who will be happy, industrious and prosperous.

CHILD LABOR IN THE SOUTH

BY DR. A. J. MCKELWAY, ATLANTA, GA., ASSISTANT SECRETARY NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

The American conscience has revolted against the child labor system. I am not equally sure that the American intelligence fully appreciates the far-reaching consequences of this evil system. Child labor means racial degeneracy, perpetuated poverty, increase of illiteracy, the disintegration of the family, the increase of crime, the lowering of the wage scale, and the swelling army of the unemployed. Hardly a topic has been touched upon in this Conference that to my mind has not suggested some relation to the child labor problem. Take the case of racial degeneracy. I trust every member of this Con-

ference will send for the most recent bulletin issued by the Department of Labor at Washington—a study of women and children in industry in England, by Victor Clark. Mr. Clark has been in Europe studying these problems, and he has written this pamphlet which should be in the hands of all social workers in this country.

There is no doubt that the English people today are facing a wholesale race degeneracy. Public men have been pointing to the real cause. For a hundred years the people of England have been fighting this child labor system, and have not as yet reached as good a standard as we have in some of our American states in the prevention of this evil. Half a century ago England undertook to combine the commercial and the educational plan. They put the children of the poor to work in the mills half a day and to study in the schools the other half of the day. The result is that these children are poorly educated. It is just as bad as if they had spent all their time in the mills.

Child labor simply perpetuates poverty. Take the most extreme case, that of a poor widow with a large family. Society has some duty to that widow and the children. When you compel those children to engage too early in toil, and deny them the privileges of an education and condemn them to the very lowest wage scale, you simply perpetuate and multiply poverty for succeeding generations to take care of.

Child labor means the enlargement of illiteracy. The school and the mill are competitors for the possession of the child—or the school and the mine, as the case may be. In the census of 1900 some striking figures were noted on this subject. The greatest percentage of illiteracy is in the south. In North Carolina among white children from ten to fourteen the percentage of illiteracy is sixteen, whereas in the cotton mill families it is fifty per cent. In South Carolina the corresponding figures are fourteen and forty-eight; in Georgia, twelve and forty-four. The illiteracy of white children from ten to fourteen years of age in the factory families is from three to four times as great as the illiteracy of the same children in the state at large; and as the greater includes the less, we might solve the problem of white illiteracy in those states by sending

the mill children to school. Negro children are not employed in the mills.

Child labor means the disintegration of the family. At the recent Conference in Washington on Dependent Children, one of the great problems discussed was how to keep the family intact. By child labor the law of nature and the law of the Scriptures is reversed. Parents should lay up for the children and not the children for the parents. When you put the child to work so that he becomes the bread winner, he becomes independent, indifferent to parental restraint and irreverent, and disobedient to law. In my section of the country this is particularly the case. We have boys and girls fourteen to sixteen years old working in the mills together, both bread winners, their parents getting their wages. They go off to a justice of the peace and get married, and keep at work in the mill and keep the wages for themselves. There are widows in Georgia only fourteen years old in factory families. I heard a cotton manufacturer just over the border in Georgia make a plea for a law forbidding these child marriages. He said the soldiers from the army camps came and married the young girls and then deserted them, and the little widows would come back with children in their arms and ask for work.

Child labor means increase of crime. We have not had in the South very great need of the Juvenile Court system and the reformatory system as you have in your large cities. But in our factory communities children are growing up in crime. It is not the child who is sent to school that becomes a tramp and a pauper. The child who is sent too early to work and robbed of the privileges of childhood, becomes disappointed and disgusted in later years and enters the army of the tramp and the criminal.

Child labor means the lowering of the wage scale. The child labor problem has to fight some of the biggest money interests in this country, and for this reason: The percentage of industries that employ large numbers of children is small as compared with other industries. Only a few industries are conspicuous in this respect. Yet the putting of five hundred thousand children in the army of workers means a wholesale lowering of the wage scale. If we could by law stop the employ-

ment of every child under fourteen, you would see an immediate response in the elevation of the wage scale, and the solving of many problems of relief. Railroads do not employ children, but they are carriers of coal, and the coal mines employ children. No children are employed about banks, yet I know a great banking institution in the South in which the president and cashier and directors are stockholders in child labor institutions, and the largest depositors are cotton mill men. So you see the ramifications of this problem as it affects business interests. We, who stand for the abolition of child labor, have to fight the money interests of the country, and the commercial organs are against us. For this reason we need your especial sympathy.

A man's position on the subject of child labor is a sure test of where he stands on the general question of charity. It is easy to give money after it has been wrung out of the sweat of little children, for the building of schools and hospitals and asylums. I sometimes think that charity organizations might say to some of these employers of children, who give so liberally to charity, as Simon Peter said: "Thinkest thou that the gift of God can be purchased with money? Thy money perish with thee!" I wish that some statistical student would make a study of this problem of how much of the unemployment of adults is due to the employment of children. Child labor means that all the members of the family, father, mother and the children working together, will make no more than the father alone could make if child labor were abolished. In Alabama a man in the steel works makes just as much as a family of eight or ten can make in the cotton mill in the same town. I hope to show you pictures of children employed in three of our southern industries, the oyster canning industry, the cigar industry, and the cotton industry.

In the oyster canning industry nearly all the employes are Bohemians, imported from Baltimore. They work in the Maryland fruit and vegetable canneries during the summer. In Maryland the age limit for the employment of children is twelve years, and that handicaps us in our efforts. In Maryland there is also an exemption for the children who are employed in canneries during the summer. After the canning business in Baltimore is over these Bohemians move to the gulf coast, and

are employed there in the oyster industry while the schools are in session in Maryland. It will take joint action on the part of the Gulf states and Maryland to stop that evil. While we of the south are the chief sinners with regard to the employment of children in the cotton mills, it should be remembered that the child labor system was imported with the cotton mill machinery from New England.

New York, Ohio, Illinois and Oklahoma have the eight-hour day for children under sixteen. In those states there are practically no cotton mills.

When I show you my pictures,* you will see that I have not exaggerated the truth. We look for the coming of a better day, because we are fighting for the children, against whom these great commercial interests are arrayed. But we are considering the child and his interest only, and we have to do with a sacred sentiment that moves the hearts of men for his defense.

UNITY OF CHILD HELPING WORK

BY DR. HASTINGS H. HART

I joined this Conference in 1883 and have seen a most interesting evolution. Twenty-six years ago there was a sharp division between the advocates of different methods of caring for dependent and delinquent children, especially those advocating the institutional plan and the placing-out system. We had for many years committees on dependent children and on delinquent children. Then we had separate committees on juvenile courts, playgrounds and child labor. Tonight we meet under the auspices of the "Committee on Children." It is recognized that the different lines of work for children are so related that it is impossible, even if it were desirable, to separate them.

The same process is visible in the whole line of child-caring work. The early juvenile reformatories were juvenile prisons, to which children were sent on time sentences, after

* At the close of his address Dr. McKelway showed a number of pictures on the stereopticon of children at work.

conviction of crime, like adults. The "House of Refuge" became the "Reform School," afterward the "Industrial School," then the "Training School." Now it is named for some person or locality, as, "The Lyman School for Boys," or "The Glen Mills School." We used to have "asylums" for the deaf and blind. Now we build "schools." We used to build "orphan asylums." Now we build "Children's Homes." We recognize the fact that the child is to be educated and fitted for the battle of life.

The same process of transition is visible in our courts. The Juvenile Court was not an invention; it was an evolution. Some of its features were in practice long before it was established. If it had not been established in Illinois, it would have come elsewhere; it was in the air, and it illustrates the unity of the whole of this child helping work.

The unity of child helping is illustrated in Massachusetts, and a wonderful co-ordination of the child helping forces exists in that State. In Boston, three child-helping societies—The Children's Aid Society, The Children's Friend Society and The Children's Mission—co-operate as though they were one society. A bureau of information preserves an outline of facts respecting every child who comes under the care of these several institutions. If a child is brought to the Children's Friend Society, the agent telephones the Central Bureau: "What record have you of Johnny Smith?" Back comes the answer of how the child was cared for a year ago by the Boston Children's Aid Society. The Boston Children's Aid Society is called. "We have Johnny Smith here, and we find that he was formerly your ward. Do you wish to continue his care?" "Yes, send him." Or, "Yes, we cared for him; but under present circumstances you can care for him better than we. Will you care for him?" No one acts without knowing what the others have done. In Boston, the State Board of Charity, the Children's Aid Society, the Children's Friend Society, the Children's Mission, the Boston Female Society and the "Church Home" all use the same history blanks for record of a child and his brothers and sisters and parents. It took them three years to draft and test those blanks. They wanted to get together and they had patience, wisdom and mutual re-

spect for each other. That spirit will enable them to get together on any topic. Recently such an understanding has been reached that the work of the state and the private agencies is co-ordinated.

Massachusetts is not alone in the development of this unity. The leaven is working throughout the United States. In California $450,000 a year is distributed to the orphan asylums. There was established, by the co-operation of eight or ten orphan asylums, a joint agency for placing children in family homes. And the spirit of co-operation is growing in that state.

In New Jersey, Father Foy's Catholic Children's Aid Society has become a co-operative bureau for a considerable number of Catholic institutions to receive their children, and place them in homes under the most careful and scientific methods. Similar work is done by the Catholic Home Bureau in New York, which is a co-operative agency for several institutions.

In Chicago, eleven years ago, there was established the "Cook County Child-Saving Conference." They met monthly, seven or eight months a year, holding their meetings in different institutions. As they came together, saw each other's work and became acquainted, there arose a mutual respect and regard, with a steady increase in understanding and co-operation. Formerly, when a child was found by a policeman on his beat, he would say, "Here is a foundling or an abandoned child. I will send him to the Foundlings' Asylum or to the Protestant Orphan Asylum, the Industrial School, or St. Vincent's, or the Jewish Orphan Asylum." That policeman settled the fate of that child, or the agent of some society, wise or otherwise, determined the question. We now see that this is an inadequate way of dealing with a child. There are agencies which should co-operate.

If the question of taking the child from parents is involved, the Juvenile Court should be invoked. The question is too important to be settled out of hand by the policeman on the beat or the agent of a child-helping society. In some cases, the agent of the State Board of Charities is called and applies his wisdom to the case. A single child may need the co-operation of the State Board, the United Charities, the Children's Home and Aid Society, the Juvenile Court and the hospital,

or, it may involve the industrial school, the orphan asylum, the juvenile reformatory, or some institution for the blind, deaf or feeble-minded.

The succeessful co-ordination of child-helping organizations depends, in its last analysis, upon the spirit of the workers. There must be willingness to disregard personal interests and feelings in order to secure the best results for the child. There must be an increase of respect for the other people engaged in somewhat different but related work. The closer people get together the harder it is for them to misunderstand.

The Pittsburg Conference on Children was one of the most hopeful things in the recent history of this country.

The President's Conference on Dependent Children, held in Washington in January, 1909, was an admirable illustration of the prevailing tendency toward unity in child-helping work. At first, apparently, there was hopeless division. The President had made an admirable harmonizing speech, and the Committee on Resolutions got together. The most elaborate platform ever brought before any Conference on Children was adopted—three thousand words. It contained things you would never think it possible for so many people to be united on. It was presented at four o'clock on Tuesday, and two hours' discussion was provided for. It was expected that there would be many amendments. A motion was made to adopt the platform. Two or three speeches were made. Then Superintendent Crouse of Cincinnati said: "I am in favor of these resolutions as presented for the most part. I would like one change. The report says that there should be *frequent* visitation of placed-out children. I should like to substitute for the word '*frequent*' the word 'adequate.'" The committee accepted the amendment. After further discussion the question was taken by a rising vote. Apparently every delegate arose, and when the negative was called for there was not a dissenting vote. This is wonderful testimony to the progress made in the development of a consensus and a recognition of the principles that should govern us in this work.

JUVENILE COURTS AS AN AID TO GOOD CITIZENSHIP

BY WILLIAM H. DeLACEY, JUDGE OF THE JUVENILE COURT OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

(*Abstract.*)

A good citizen is one who contributes to the end and object of his country. A good citizen is determined by the meaning of our country and its institutions. Our country means that the people have come into their own, that society is not for the few but for the many. In awakening to the consciousness that the welfare of the many is the end of society, we have likewise come to a realization that in order to attain this end the many must have a say in the direction and control of society, that is, in government. We hold that all the just powers of government have their origin in the consent of the governed and that it is the right of the people to frame such a government as will best insure their safety and happiness. But that they may do this they must have knowledge, they must be intelligent, they must be virtuous. To be a good sovereign, the people, the democracy, must be both intelligent and virtuous. This the people cannot be unless the individual citizens, or the vast majority of the individual citizens, are intelligent and virtuous. In other words, we need today, even more than under other forms of government in other days, the virtues of prudence, justice, fortitude, temperance, industry, social spirit. It is the possession of these that measures man's value to the state.

The young of the irrational animal speedily come to the full enjoyment of their powers, including instinct. The development of the young of humankind to maturity is a long and tedious process, giving time for the expanding of all their powers to do and to discriminate or reason. This is a period of dependency in which the children have an abnormal status before the law, that is, they are without legal responsibility or full legal capacity. This is a period in which to acquire habits of obedience in the home and school, which become respect for the laws in the mature citizen.

The Juvenile Court is born of these considerations and the realization that, during childhood, the young are in a formative period in which to develop good habits and, for infractions of law, should receive correction rather than punishment. Now correction involves the idea of adjustment of conduct to approved standards, involves the idea of education and culture, and herein lies the opportunity of the Juvenile Court to aid good citizenship. This court, exercising the chancery powers of the state as *parens patriae*, places needy little ones bereft of their parents in proper care and guardianship, with due regard to the rights of conscience of the children, carefully seeking for the homeless child a home of its own religious convictions, and rescues children from vicious or immoral surroundings.

These courts punish adults who debauch the young or influence them to illegal acts. They enforce the child labor legislation intended for the conservation of childhood through its growing years so that it may be saved from arrested development and given a chance to unfold its powers in a natural way. These courts enforce the laws requiring the husband and father to support the wife and children in full conviction that the securing of this right of support will safeguard the family, the true unit in the state, and preserve its children from the starvation and the need that drive to the temptations of the street and to crime. The Juvenile Court aims to so intelligently handle the children who have violated the laws of the state as to correct their evildoings and save these children to themselves and to the community.

In conclusion, these courts, in a painstaking manner, instruct the children in their duties and in their rights, and strive to awaken their self-respect. From the Juvenile Court it is hoped that our citizens of tomorrow will derive knowledge and imbibe a spirit of obedience to the laws of their country. This truly educative function makes the Juvenile Court the complement of the public school, and demands in the judge the qualities of the jurist, the teacher, the sociologist and philanthropist.

THE BREAKING UP OF FAMILIES

BY C. C. CARSTENS, SECRETARY OF THE MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN

(*Abridged.*)

There are few questions in practical social work today that bring with them more difficulties, misunderstandings, and but partially worked out plans, than the adjustment of the work of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children.

Many people consider that societies by this name are almost wholly concerned with the prosecution of parents or other persons who have inflicted needless and unusual physical suffering upon children. To others who have learned of their broader purposes, they represent agencies that are principally concerned with the breaking up of families and they are not infrequently criticized for so easily breaking the tie between parents and children. Social workers, on the other hand, are apt to think of them as agencies more or less inefficient because they do not more quickly break up families in which parents seem to have a bad influence on their children.

In any discussion of the breaking up of families, it will be necessary to understand the purposes of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children, and as an example the purposes of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children are here given. They are as follows:

1. To prevent physical injury, remove the child whenever it is necessary to protect it, and punish the offenders whenever the best interests of all concerned seem to demand it.

2. To prevent physical neglect; in extreme cases to remove the children and find better homes for them through suitable agencies.

3. To rescue children from immoral surroundings and shield them from immoral contamination.

4. To protect wife and dependent children from non-support and desertion of the bread-winner and protect children from abandonment by either parent.

5. To procure suitable new guardians for children who have been deprived of their natural guardians or who should be removed from them in the interests of humanity.

Of the 6,180 different children whose lives have come under the influence of the agents of the Massachusetts Society during the past year, the home conditions of only 1,966, or less than one-third, required any court action. In a considerable number of these court cases the action taken was for non-support or it was of some other character not necessarily involving the breaking of the family ties. In an additional number of instances, court action was taken for a temporary break up of the family with the hope that the family might by that means be more firmly established later. About one-fourth of all the children the Massachusetts Society comes in contact with are removed from their parents permanently by court action. This proportion varies very much in different communities to accord with the varying standards and statutes of the various states, and in the same state with the varying standards of various judges, and varying resources in cities and towns for undertaking remedial or preventive work without court action or before court action is necessary.

(The speaker then gave detailed statements of fifteen families dealt with by the Massachusetts Society, presenting many grades of immorality, drunkenness, and other vices, in every one of which the need of permanent separation of the children from their parents was clearly shown.)

These fifteen cases present as many different family problems. They will suggest to every social worker many times fifteen other cases that may help us to understand the field of this branch of children's work and to reach a conclusion as to when it is necessary to remove children from the custody of their parents or guardians. Societies for the prevention of cruelty to children were started because gross cruelties and permanent injuries were inflicted on children by their parents or their guardians. Without detracting in the least from the importance of this work, the active societies of that name and the active humane societies, part of whose function is to deal with children, have learned to realize that greater harm comes to a child from constant association with parents who underfeed it, who give poor physical care to a child's infirmities, who give it neither education nor training, or what is worse, allow it to associate with corrupting and immoral persons, than

from the infliction of severe physical punishment for real or alleged wrong doing.

No principle of work for children seems more unanimously accepted than that homes ought not to be broken up because of poverty. While it is a great wrong to remove children from a reputable and industrious widow and scatter them among various foster homes or place them in institutions; it is a greater wrong for a community to undertake to keep mother and children together in such a niggardly way that the children must needs be left to their own devices and to evil associations.

A false sentiment exists in our communities in regard to the sacredness of the family tie. The institution of the family has since the dawn of history been the unit of society. But that family has certainly failed of its main function which adds underfed, undeveloped, untrained, deceitful, dishonest or immoral men and women to the community. It is not enough to give the child sufficient food and clothing—it is home life, home training and the inculcation of home virtues that develop a virtuous child and make it grow into a pillar of the state.

Other charitable agencies deal every year successfully with the children of widows, the sick and of those suffering from calamity or misfortune. But even in the relief of these groups we do not lose sight of the fact that the character of the recipient is of the highest concern and that success is measured by the care with which children are raised and trained into useful citizens. There are other family problems where success is not always as certain, and one of the most complicated is the assistance of the deserted wife and intermittent husband. The English method of relieving the deserted wife by giving aid in the workhouse only, seems to us too drastic. But after all has been said in criticism of the English method, it is a constant query how we shall determine the amount of responsibility a community shall assume for keeping a family together when an able-bodied husband has abandoned wife and children. The hearty co-operation of the wife in all the steps of a vigorous prosecution, whenever the deserting husband can be found,

is the minimum condition of relief in keeping the group together.

This brings us to a still more complicated family problem. When a family contains a lazy or drinking father or a shiftless or drinking mother, material aid and frequently friendly advice are but the means of letting degenerating influences go on unchecked. In these cases all the sanctions that the community affords, such as friendship, kinship, religion and law, must be invoked to make headway. When the community by months or years of patient study finds that the sum total of such families' contribution to the community is but a group of untrained and vicious children, true charity will find another way to do its duty. What applies to the above class mentioned, applies even more strongly to families of established drunkards, of the feeble-minded, of the immoral, of the married or unmarried vagabonds, or of the perverts. Our communities must develop effective instruments that can get accurate knowledge regarding these groups. They must have the courage to learn all the terms in these human equations and then look the results squarely in the face. When the benefit the community derives from the maintenance of the family ties is overshadowed by the corruption which further contact with such parents brings, children should be saved from such intimate corrupting influences and if necessary by due process of law.

Our laws are wisely conservative about the removal of children from their parents. Our police, our courts and the average intelligent citizens are still too much impressed by the neglect which is evidenced by dirty hands and faces and ragged clothing, and fail to realize the corrupting and blighting influences of tyrannical, unaffectionate, indecent, immoral parents, although the material comforts of life may be present to an unusual degree. Neglected homes, or, as one writer calls them, the non-functioning homes, and another, the unstable homes, are at the foundation of much juvenile vice and crime.

It is the duty of the social worker to find where the application of our law is weak in the working out of these larger purposes, to educate our citizens to a more sensitive point of view in these matters, and to agitate for more effective laws.

There is as yet much to be done. New dangers must be recognized, new evidences of corruption must be analyzed to learn their causes, and new laws must be placed upon our statute books to become the backbone of effort in family regeneration. But besides the new law, there must be a more intelligent enforcement. The expert use of the law and the courts in the regeneration of family life, which is, in my judgment, at foundation the purpose of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children, will still require much study and experiment before we are on firm ground. Children that should stay with their parents are now being removed because we have not yet learned effective ways of preventing this break up of the family. Children are being kept from parents to the detriment of parents and children alike, longer than they need to be because of insufficient knowledge and inexperienced work with our courts. Children are being returned when all that can result is their permanent degeneration, possibly interrupted now and then by their being removed for short periods, but with remote chances of saving them to decent manhood and womanhood.

Above all, we must remember that the family home is for the child and the child is not here for the sake of the family.

With problems such as those before mentioned some agency in each one of our communities must grapple. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty, because of its proximity to the courts and its experience in dealing with the law and with the police is, therefore, the natural agency to turn to. Its agents have placed in their hands grave responsibilities.

Families should not, and fortunately cannot, be broken up on suspicion. But when other agencies have done their best (alas! sometimes their worst) to redeem parents and children from evil associations and an evil life these agencies, and private individuals as well, should be able to turn with confidence to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and, counseling together, set to work jointly to improve the home as it stands or ask the courts to remove the children to better homes.

This co-operative work, we can readily see, is not likely to come about if such a society is only an arm of the police.

Co-operation with the police is quite possible, and to its possibility, effectiveness and service in most of the towns and cities of Massachusetts I can sincerely bear testimony at this time, but that this co-operation shall be most effective it is necessary that our Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children should have an ample number of trained social workers, mostly men, but also some women, with whom and through whom constructive plans can be worked out.

For these reasons it is better that the agents of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children should have at best but limited police power. Such a society is best organized when it uses the police, the courts and other public and private agencies in an expert way to accomplish the community's purposes in the protection of children.

To this end such societies must begin to recognize the importance of efficient investigation, active co-operation with other agencies, and the value of trained social workers.

Some of these societies have already caught the spirit of the times. We feel sure that the others will follow.

THE PROBLEM OF TRUANCY

BY MARY BOYLE O'REILLY, TRUSTEE CHILDREN'S INST. DEPARTMENT OF BOSTON

(*Extracts.*)

Truancy is a symptom of a deep-seated trouble. It is found most often where the strain of city life on children is most apparent, among the children of the immigrants, the boys and girls of a transition generation. Boston, like most of the great cities, is 40 to 50 per cent. foreign. It is a great port city and so harbors the most recent migrants. These being mostly unskilled must work for low and precarious wages and live often in congested districts and unsanitary homes. Their children must struggle against the moral effects of extreme poverty, a hopeless outlook, malnutrition and the results of intemperance.

Few habitual truants have normal homes. Out of one hundred family histories one-fifth came from degenerating or pauper families; in one-third father or mother was dead; in more than one-half father or mother was intemperate. Out of the hundred, one-fourth of the so-called truants had, on the expiration of their term, to be boarded out or indentured, having no home to which they could return.

Children of foreign parents, especially those speaking only a foreign language, actually know more than their parents, have undue authority in the family council, lack parental control, leave home without permission, conduct their lives as they see fit. They are profoundly unprepared for the social changes of early boyhood, the extended acquaintance, greater responsibilities, larger freedom of the adolescent.

In Boston, the child-labor law being actively enforced, truancy from good homes is confined to the native-born children of foreign parents, or the overgrown foreign-born child who is ashamed of his school rating.

Out of 150 truants 50 were found to have defective eyes, and thirty others to be suffering from poor hearing or adenoids. A notable percentage show the effects of an environment of neglect and slow starvation, being fretful, sleepless and in a chronic state of physical fatigue and nervous excitement. For such as these the city of Boston provides a correctional school situated on a great tract of land along the Charles River, where the pupils live in cottages a quiet, regular home life, with good food, a generous dietary, training their brains and nerves with vigorous play and outdoor work. A large percentage of the truants are from the ungraded or below grade classes. For these manual training is especially valuable.

Of 260 boys asked why they "hooked jack," one-third gave as their reason that the lessons were too hard, the teacher cross, or their fear of punishment—all reasons that are the outcome of physical or nervous conditions. There are twice as many truants at ten years as at nine years, twice as many at eleven as at ten; again, twice as many at twelve as at eleven.

The prize reason for playing truant: John Doe, age 10—

"I hooked because I wanted to see what the Parental School looked like."

RELATIVE FUNCTIONS OF THE STATE AND PRIVATE CHARITIES IN CARE OF DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN

BY STANLEY C. GRIFFIN, STATE AGENT OF THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL, COLDWATER, MICH.

(*Abstract.*)

The subject of State and Private Care for the Dependent and Neglected is being so thoroughly discussed at various sections of this Conference, and the excellence of both methods are so obvious that it would be hard to affirm which is the more necessary.

In states where both methods exist a more profitable discussion would be along the lines of co-operation of the two whereby a harmonious end may be attained.

In states where only the one method exists, a discussion of the introduction of the other method also, with its indispensable advantages, should be productive of good results.

To one who has labored in the field of private care for dependent and neglected children and later become associated with the state method, two advantages of the state system soon become apparent:

First—Relief from soliciting money.

Second—Increased advantage through state authority in reaching real cases of dependency and neglect with least possible friction.

In some of our western states much time, labor and money is expended in raising money for unendowed or partially endowed private institutions or societies. Agents are engaged who solicit money in churches, factories, and by house-to-house canvass. Some societies without endowment are actually obliged to spend more time and money in the raising of money than in the real work of caring for the children, thus curtailing their usefulness to the care of a very small number of children compared to the money expended.

It is a great advantage through the state system to be able to conserve all this time, labor and money for the interest of the child itself.

One of the greatest difficulties encountered by the worker in private charities for care of children is lack of legal authority to reach certain cases of neglect. I can recall an instance in a private society with which I was connected, when a case of the serious ill-treatment and neglect of a child became so acute, and legal barriers so insurmountable, that one of the good ladies of the society cut the "Gordian Knot" by planning and executing a very neat case of kidnapping.

By the state method the worker becomes a state officer, and has not only the authority of the state back of him, but can call the various officers of the state, wherever he may be, to his assistance. The co-operation of the various state departments and their officers is a vast advantage not only in rescue of neglected children, but in placing out and supervision. Through the state system many of the vexatious delays and restraints experienced by the private society are eliminated.

Many private societies are bending their energies more and more to cases of temporary care of the dependent, and to the rescue of ill-treated and neglected children. When such children are ready to be placed in private families, if in a state where the state method exists, they are turned over to state care to be placed in private families under supervision of experienced workers where they will receive continuous and permanent care until adoption, or until they become of age. In states where the state system does not exist these children are turned over to some strongly-endowed, efficient placing-out agency, as in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and other eastern states. These placing-out agencies, both state and private, are more particularly trained along the line of placing out and future supervision, and are equipped financially so that permanent protection for the child in the private home is guaranteed. In Michigan many children are sent to the state public school through private societies just as soon as they become permanently dependent through refusal of parent or relative to assist in their support at the temporary home of the society. This temporary care by the local private societies and institutions should be the strong feature, as they are better adapted to this phase of the work, and can do much

toward preserving the ties of motherhood and fatherhood which bind homes together.

Many private societies, however, attempt to place out children in private families without adequate provision for experienced investigation and supervision. Through lack of funds such societies are obliged to rely upon correspondence or volunteer service. Not infrequently these weaker societies, with children scattered about the state in private families, disintegrate through lack of sufficient financial aid and the children are left without any supervision whatever. I recall one recent case in our state where something over one hundred children were placed out hurriedly in various private families when the financial break came, and the institution ceased to exist. In another case the doors of an institution were suddenly closed and a large number of young girls ranging in age from 12 to 16 years were suddenly thrust in private families in the most precipitate manner without any possible provision for careful investigation or future supervision.

Whenever attempts have been made to provide by law for contingencies of this character, these societies have used every possible influence to defeat such efforts. With proper cooperation, whereby each private society or state institution performs the work for which it is best fitted, legislation is unnecessary, and discussions of this character will undoubtedly promote a better understanding and division of the work.

AFTER CARE OF INSTITUTION CHILDREN

BY REV. BROTHER BARNABAS, SUPERINTENDENT LINCOLN AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL, SOMERS CENTER, N. Y.

(*Abstract.*)

In considering the after care of the institution child, we must consider him from the time the institution receives him. As a rule the boys range between 8 and 15 years. Frequently they are physically weak, not having received proper nourishment, often having defective eyes or nasal trouble. The first care, then, is cleanliness, proper nourishment and physical upbuilding. The best specialists procurable attend to the care of the eyes and the removal of adenoids, etc., and to the work of proper physical development. In the meantime, order commences and the boy begins to feel a sense of duty never before known.

Then the intellectual work. Frequently boys of 14 and 15 who have never been able to read or write, nor concentrate their mind on any one problem, must be brought to do so, and to attend school regularly. The poor backward boys receive particular attention, and by the way, the education of the backward boy is a great problem and the best and most efficient teacher must be given to this class of boys. Particular honor attaches to those who are devoting themselves to the backward children.

The boy is put in good physical health by regularity of life—proper hours for rising and retiring—physical culture and gymnastic work, so that he is brought to a normal physical condition.

Then comes into play the vocational schools. The boy must be studied, to learn what particular line of work he is adapted for, and this having been determined, he is assigned to a certain shop. Often the boy is inclined to agricultural life, and so he is sent to that branch to become an up-to-date farmer, either in the dairy or the agricultural department, where scientific instruction as well as practical work is given.

We next come to the point when it is time for the boy to leave the institution. This is above all times the most important in his life and doubly does he need guidance and direction now. Up to the present the boy's every want has been attended to, but now he is about to step out to take his chances in the race for life. He begins to handle money for the first time. He is put on his own mettle, for he knows that in the office, in the shops, every one must stand on his own foundation. There is a complete transition; therefore the importance of direction, care and guidance at this time.

The after care for the boy who is going to live in the city must be a real home training. It must be individual and by one to whom the boy can look as to a parent. The home must be attractive, so much so that after his work his first thought is to hurry to that home. He must have an inquiring friend who asks about the day's work, interests himself in the boy's progress, encourages him to bear with annoyances and troubles, helps him to overcome obstacles, to smooth away the difficulties with his work, or his fellow workmen, and bring him through those moments of discouragement when any other trade or line of work looks better than his own—encouragement and guidance that makes the boy stick and succeed in spite of all.

In that home there must be a social side of life. The boy must be trained to be a gentleman with gentlemen, to meet the proper class of people, and good tastes and higher ideals than the boy has known before must be cultivated. He must be taught the value of money, its purchasing power and the difference between necessities and luxuries. The idea that a five-dollar-a-week boy can dress the same as the fifty-dollar-a-week man must be removed from his mind. He must learn to live within his means; that everything has a certain cost and that he must expect nothing for nothing.

When the boy's character is thus developed and he knows the value of money, he is selected to enter the home of a private family as a boarder; he mingles with them in their home life. It is of greatest importance that the home be a suitable one for him, as his whole future largely depends on

the home of the first family with whom he boards. He thus takes his place among the social fabric and is now a citizen among citizens. It sometimes happens, however, that he needs encouragement and guidance until he is finally secure in his home. So much for the boy in the city.

The boy who is going to the rural districts with his knowledge of dairying and farm work must have his home carefully selected, as his temperament and disposition must be suited to the family with whom he will live; the employes about the place and the locality must also be considered. To fit the boy in the proper home under these conditions is no light labor. The boy has been taught and trained in scientific farming, and under the care of the institution he has been living a home life. He must now mingle with different people, meet other employes and work alongside of them. He receives his first wages, and like the boy in the city must be guided in the proper use of his money, to save when he can, so that one day he may aspire to be able to have a little home of his own. We must see to it that he gets his due and that he gives to the family what is due to them.

In order to get suitable homes we make a thorough canvass of the rural districts, where live some of the noblest of our citizens, and persuade them that in receiving into their home one of these boys, sharing their bread and butter, washing for him, putting up with his petty annoyances, they are giving the very best possible contribution to charity. Far better for the little orphan boy to be with such a family day by day than for them to hand hundreds of dollars to the institution, then forget all about charity. It is only by personal canvass that we are able to find really desirable homes, where the families, by their love for their neighbor and their broad fairmindedness, are doing much to perpetuate American citizenship.' Too frequently those who are seeking the orphan boy in the spring are undesirable people to whom to entrust a boy.

When the boy is placed in his new home his after care is only beginning. He is visited and corresponded with, frequently admonished and encouraged. The boy is like the young plant—he must be cultivated like the sapling until by

this cultivation he is absorbed into the family life of his foster parents. The boy's path is not always smooth. Oftentimes there is something lacking, either in himself or in his foster parents. He does not fit into his environment; hence the necessity for a transfer, to be always avoided if possible, but at times necessary before we can get the boy finally settled. Frequently we are disappointed in our boys after finding excellent homes for them; they are influenced by some ne'er-do-well of the neighborhood or by some farm hand with a roving disposition, who would lead them to the life of a tramp, and so they leave their homes, sometimes leaving their belongings behind them.

THE NATIONAL CHILDREN'S BUREAU

BY OWEN R. LOVEJOY, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

At the recent White House Conference on Dependent Children, one of the resolutions passed was referred immediately to Congress by President Roosevelt. It was a recommendation to Congress for favorable action on a bill to establish a bureau that should investigate all questions relating to the welfare of children. That bill was formulated nearly four years ago by the National Child Labor Committee. One of our special duties is to work for the establishment of this bureau, and we are continuing the fight. The bill is now before the special session of Congress, having been favorably reported by committees in both houses. We hope to have it brought up for action at an early date in the regular session. We believe we can get that bureau within three weeks after the opening of the next session if you will help us.

But two possible lines of opposition have been seriously suggested to the bill:

(1) The objection that it would duplicate work already being done.

(2) That it would bring to more prominent public attention the existing evils of child labor.

Replying to the first of these objections, we are prepared to bring the strongest possible evidence. Dr. North, director of the census, before the Congressional committee having the bill in charge, said: "We do not want to divert our energies into studies of physical degeneracy, of orphanage, of juvenile delinquency and juvenile courts, and all that class of questions which are not statistical questions. The census office is a purely statistical office."

Dr. Charles P. Neill, Commissioner of Labor, in answering the question whether the work could be done by the present Bureau of Labor, said:

"I do not believe you could get the same quality of ability to do this work under the Bureau of Labor as you could have it, say under an independent bureau. I do not believe if the government is going to spend money at all in this particular line that it will be economical or that we shall get the best results if it attempts simply to make use to a limited extent of existing organizations, no one of which, so far as I know, is equipped or could equip itself without some departure from its proper line of work, to study these things as thoroughly and as fundamentally as they ought to be studied."

The only other bureau from which the work could possibly be expected—the Bureau of Education—is believed by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, U. S. Commissioner of Education, not to be adapted to the purpose. Before this same committee he said:

> "We cannot deal properly with the large questions of the education of children without a more detailed and accurate knowledge than we now possess as to the actual conditions surrounding the child life of the country, such conditions as are referred to in this bill. I think the best way to accomplish this end is by the passage of such a bill as this and the establishment of a separate bureau."

Those who have followed this matter closely and are agitating for the enactment of this bill are pressing upon Congress the fact that at present none of these bureaus, nor any other branch of the government service, is doing the work herein proposed. The work is not being done. We are not particular in what way it is done. We only ask that after these years

of waiting, the government will in some form decide to collect and distribute the information we seek.

Senator Frank P. Flint of California, who is the sponsor for the bill in the senate, after hearing the arguments for the bill, said, in the name of the Committee on Education and Labor:

> "The committee believes that such facts as may be scientifically ascertained and may be published in popular form concerning the child life of the nation will be of inestimable advantage. We believe it would be entirely within the province of the national government to secure scientific and reliable information along these lines concerning the general welfare of the children of the nation. Other nations have already advanced beyond our own in researches of this kind."

As to the second objection, I have only this to say: If we strike out of the program contemplated in the establishment of this bureau all reference to the employment of children in gainful occupations, all reference to industrial accidents to children, we strike from it the heart of the opposition. This opposition has not appeared openly, but from many quarters we have been made conscious of its presence. Such a mutilation of the bill would take away everything that these special interests do not want to have made public. Then no Congressman would find his constituents opposed to the measure for reasons not clearly stated. But I ask you whether the people interested in the welfare of children want a Federal Children's Bureau with that cut out? Will you not rather join with the National Child Labor Committee and other organizations dedicated to this campaign and press the fight with increasing vigor until the proposition in its entirety is realized? Such a bureau will give us adequate authoritative information on this subject, as well as on all subjects pertaining to child welfare precisely when and where we need it. A similar bureau in Canada has existed for sixteen years. Send to the office of the National Child Labor Committee for information on this subject.

Defectives

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

BY J. M. MURDOCH, M. D., SUPERINTENDENT STATE INSTITUTION FOR FEEBLE-MINDED OF WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA, POLK, PA., ACTING CHAIRMAN

QUARANTINE MENTAL DEFECTIVES

The greatest accomplishments of the medical profession in recent years have been along the line of preventive medicine. The principles which have brought about the great accomplishments of preventive medicine are early careful diagnosis and quarantine. The application of these principles, early careful diagnosis and quarantine, to the mental defective—quarantine not for forty days, but for life—will prevent more misery, pauperism, degeneracy and crime and do more for the upbuilding of our race than any other measure within the power of man.

To those who have not given this matter careful thought this must seem to be an appalling and exaggerated statement, but to those who have studied the question carefully, whether from the standpoint of the individual, the family, the community or the race—present or future—whether from the standpoint of philanthropy or economy, the importance of this question cannot be overestimated and they must see the simple and only practical solution to be quarantine for the mental defective, not for forty days, but for life.

In Great Britain, a much older country, but with only about one-half the population of the United States, the labors of the Royal Commission have enabled them to present an estimate of the number of the feeble-minded as 150,000, or one in every 250. So far as statistics are available we have a smaller proportion, about one in every four hundred, and it

may be unhesitatingly affirmed that if adequate provision were now made for feeble-minded children and for the care and protection of all feeble-minded women and girls this proportion would at least never increase. Nothing would be more economical, more sensible, more patriotic, or more kind, humane, and christian than to do this.

"We pay the bill now, not only for the maintenance of the feeble-minded and their children, but for the crimes they perpetrate and the idleness, and worse, in which they live. We put them into institutions now, but too often at the wrong time and in the wrong place."*

It is not feasible to apply positive eugenics to the human race. Negative eugenics, on the other hand, by the control of the unfit members of society, is entirely feasible at the present time. As pointed out by the American Academy of Political and Social Science, the initial expense to provide adequate equipment to care for all the mental defectives in one of our larger states would not exceed the cost of a single battleship.

Why should we not protect ourselves from a known and insidious danger in our midst as well as we do from possible danger from without?

Alexander Johnson, in a recent article in the Survey, states: "The fact is that given land enough, with common sense and ordinary executive ability, the defectives may be properly and humanely cared for, their natural increase absolutely stopped and themselves made happy at a very low cost. All the higher grades can be made entirely self-supporting under proper care and guardianship; many others may be led to do much for themselves."

The great need of every state in the Union today is greater provision for the care of its mental defectives, not extravagant provision for a few, but simple economical provision for all. Every institution for the feeble-minded in the land is not only full to overflowing but has a long waiting list.

The special ungraded classes in our public schools are doing a splendid work. Such classes should be established in all city public schools. In these classes many backward pupils

* Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Third Report of Feeble-Minded in Ontario.

are developed to a point where they can take up the regular school work and eventually develop into men and women able to stand alone and take an independent place in the community. These classes also serve a useful purpose in differentiating between those children who are simply backward and those who are inherently feeble-minded and should be sent to the institution or colony. Much may be made of the inherently feeble-minded child.

"The chemical laboratory and the scientific chemist have made from the by-products of coal and petroleum, once thrown away, illuminating gas and aniline dyes of all the hues of the rainbow, benzine, gasoline and all the paraffins. There is great profit in such application of modern chemistry to their business by the progressive manufacturer and merchant. It is good for business and good for the country. It would be still better for the country to make out of life's dregs and by-products, out of lives now wasted and worse than wasted—unemployed, unemployable, ignorant, untaught, useless and criminal—to make out of these something better, to develop them into persons who, though not up to the normal standard of humanity, are still useful, self-respecting, well employed, partly self-supporting, clean and happy, and this can only be done to the best advantage when the condition is recognized (diagnosed) early, before they have passed beyond school age." *

We need indeed be careful of our diagnosis. All the scientific methods of research, of medicine and psychology and pedagogy should be used to differentiate the child simply backward on account of some temporary condition or remediable physical defect from the inherently feeble-minded child.

The diagnosis being carefully made and the child, or man, or woman, found to be feeble-minded, for himself, for his family, for the community—present and future—he should be set apart where he may associate with congenial companions like himself, working and playing all their days—children to the end, but happy, harmless children and not dangerous and degraded ones.

* Dr. Helen MacMurchy, in Third Report.

Again I say, the application of the principles, careful early diagnosis and quarantine, to the mental defective—quarantine not for forty days, but for life—will prevent more misery, pauperism, degeneracy and crime and do more for the upbuilding of our race than any other measure within the power of man.

THE PROGRESS IN THE TREATMENT OF INSANITY DURING THE PAST HALF-CENTURY

BY F. B. SANBORN, CONCORD, MASS.

(*Abridged.*)

With Dr. Pliny Earle, superintendent of several of our early hospitals, and, in 1864, of the Northampton Hospital in Massachusetts, may be said to have fairly set in the improved treatment which existed in many of our states in 1859.

At two distinct periods, 1838-9 and 1849, Dr. Earle had investigated the care of the insane in Europe, extending his inquiries into France, Italy and Turkey in the earlier period, and in 1849, making a thorough examination of the asylums and hospitals of Germany and publishing his results in America.

These publications showed that the German psychiatrists had far exceeded our American alienists in preliminary studies and in systematic thought, for few of our countrymen had acquired a sufficient medical and philosophical training for what is now seen to be one of the most difficult and perplexing branches of the medical and psychological art. But our medical superintendents were then for the most part sensible, practical men, who had learned much empirically as superintendents or assistants in the few hospitals and asylums for the insane which then existed. None of them, so far as I came to know them, in 1863-65, had fully comprehended the economic, statistical, or even the sanatory relations of the insane to the general public, by which their care had been undertaken. Enumeration, even practical definition, of the insane was lacking; their number was much underrated and the likelihood of their recovery extremely

overrated. Our asylums, few and small, received but a portion of the visible insane, and had no means of determining the exact physical condition of the patients. The microscope, fifty years ago, had hardly begun, in this country, to do its singular work in revolutionizing medical science. Localization of function in the brain was but in rudiments, and was obscured by the charlatanry of phrenology and what was then known as animal magnetism. The classification of insanity by its external manifestations was but little advanced over the early observations made by the great physicians of the Greek and Roman periods, whose natural and humane practice had been early set aside by a mistaken Christianity.

It can hardly be said that the scientific care and cure of insanity had commenced upon any medical basis in 1859, when our half-century of subsequent progress begins. A moral foundation for its treatment had, however, been established here and there in the later eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The French Revolution, along with its excesses and reactions, saw a grand extension of enlightenment and humanity in the world, and a way was opened by the good sense of Pinel in France, Tuke in England, and Rush in America, for later medical reformers to begin a new era in the care of the insane, in the midst of which we now are. To begin, however, was not to go very far nor fast. Medical men in all ages, except a very few physicians of genius, insist on taking guesses and traditions for facts, and have shown themselves unreasonably sanguine of good results from specifics and hastily formed systems of treatment. Naturally desirous of commending a beneficent mission to the great public, our American alienists propagated a hypothesis—it was nothing else—that all the insane were easily curable, if early entrusted to their own sole care. At first a pardonable and charitable illusion, it soon passed into a delusion which they wished the community to share with the experts, who now began to have their doubts and to color their facts. Meantime, visible insanity increased amazingly, and the missionary labors of Dr. Woodward, Dr. Brigham, Miss Dix and Dr. Howe, had led to the building of many new asylums, which, of course, must be medically officered.

Although the real nature of insanity had as yet been little

studied young physicians began to see that the specialty gave an opening for them in a profession where a bread-winning general practice was not easy to acquire at first. Hence ambition and intrigue for places in the new hospitals and asylums, with personal favor and political interest coming in, and a class of physicians was introduced in high positions who had neither the mental endowment nor the high moral purpose of the pioneers in our American specialty. Pressure for the admission of patients increased with population and wealth, and the manifest growth of insanity, in spite of a comfortable theory of its cure; and the sound principles of small asylums and individual care, were gradually set aside after our Civil War.

My own acquaintance with the realities of insanity and its treatment began during this Civil War, when the number of the insane in Massachusetts was temporarily diminished and their visible increase checked by the exigencies of the national situation. Many insane men were enlisted in the armies, and at the north the demands of industry were so pressing that others, laboring under some form of insanity (both men and women), got employment in the mills and shops or on the farms and in households. A new commission was created in Massachusetts to meet the conditions of poverty and crime that the war had created—the first Board of State Charities the United States ever had—and by the suggestion of friends I was made its secretary early in October, 1863, with a general power of inquiry into all the public modes of dealing with insanity, crime and pauperism. I soon saw how closely pauperism and insanity were connected, each mutually causing the other; and, therefore, it was an early duty to examine the insane hospitals and the almshouses and prisons in which the chronic insane at that time were often kept. Extending my inquiries beyond the limits of our state, I gradually, before 1866, became acquainted with the care of the insane throughout the north and west, and in Canada; and I may safely assume that this was much the same as it had been just before the Civil War—that is, in 1859, half a century ago.

The good hospitals at that time received indiscriminately both recent and chronic cases, and had many patients now more properly classed as inebriates. They professed to make recoveries of

patients in each of the three classes, but, of course, most frequently in recent and alcoholic cases; and they received again and again their own patients formerly "recovered." The fiction of easy curability was everywhere kept up, and when the stress of war was over, was used in most states as an argument for extracting appropriations from legislatures, and endowments from wealthy citizens. These were soon expended in costly structures called hospitals, though really asylums for the chronic insane, from which the insane poor got less advantage than did the officials who dwelt in such palace hospitals.

The correct theory of moral treatment of the insane was then as well understood in the good hospitals as it is now, and as faithfully followed; which could be done the more readily because in 1859 nearly all the hospitals and asylums were small. But there was then no systematic training of nurses for insane wards, and the European innovation of non-restraint had made little progress in America. Both restraint and seclusion were far too common, and that delusion and chicanery of the doctors, "medical" or "chemical" restraint, with all its hurtful consequences, widely prevailed. Drugs and stimulants were freely employed, and one soporific after another was found and found out, but not till it had done much harm. I was welcomed as an inquirer at the annual meetings of the Association of Medical Superintendents of Insane Hospitals, an exclusive body, of high intelligence, but really open to the charge of being a "medical trades union," and very jealous of lay criticism, which it soon began to receive from state boards modeled on the Massachusetts plan, and established between 1863 and 1870.

In every instance, so far as I know (and I kept note of such things), the hospital superintendents at first opposed and resented the strictures of these first boards, and they had a special animosity to one of the earliest and most effective reformers of insane care, Dr. S. G. Howe, the supporter of Miss Dix in her missionary labors, and the leader in every charitable work that the country saw. He was for nearly ten years the chairman of our Massachusetts board, along with whom I served as secretary and colleague, and whom I succeeded as chairman for two years, from October, 1874, to October, 1876. Instead of welcoming us as new allies (which these State Boards soon became) in the

advancement of public knowledge and the improvement of treatment of the poor insane, the medical trades union of alienists, with a few wise exceptions, like Dr. Butler of Connecticut, Dr. Earle of Northampton and Dr. Chapin of the Willard Asylum in New York, received us as meddlesome critics, and for a few years thought to frown us down. The people, however, were with us; genius and scientific research were on our side; and from that day to this insanity has received a fuller and wiser discussion. A superficial and pompous display of knowledge has given way to an earnest search for truth, and the difficulties of the situation, now much increased by the trebling of population, the muddy tides of immigration, and a fuller discovery of physiologic and statistical facts, are faced today with a far better practical and scientific preparation than was possible half a century ago.

As I had occasion to observe in a Memoir of Pliny Earle, published in 1898, much has been due to the incessant but little-heralded labors of that medical superintendent, from 1835 till his death in 1892. When few Americans had the opportunity, and perhaps none the inclination, to investigate the care of the insane in Europe, he explored it thrice—in his first residence abroad, in 1849, ten years after, and briefly in 1871, after he had been for seven years directing wisely the Massachusetts hospital at Northampton, which he finally resigned in 1885, at the age of 75. These journeys placed him above our American weakness of boasting ourselves the foremost in all things, as we doubtless are in some things; they broadened his knowledge and made him more receptive of facts and theories that were new to him. His honesty of mind, and the habit of his religious sect, the philanthropic Quakers (long accustomed to look on the fashion of this world as not only transient, but as wrong), kept him from swimming smoothly with the current, as so many of his professional brethren did. His innate frugality in a wasteful generation caused him to look on the squandering of public money in building palatial poorhouses as worse than a blunder. Dr. Earle's name will stand higher, as time passes, because his work was done, not for present fame and emolument, but for the future good of a large and sadly increasing class of the poor. And his refutation of the fallacy of easy curability will be re-

membered as one of the best contributions to the science of insanity thus far made by any American. To the newer physiological investigation of insanity as a corporeal disease, which now promises better results than it has yet given, Dr. Earle was too little attentive, his bent being strongly toward the practical.

What progress, then, has been made along the lines which Dr. Howe, Dr. Earle and the more recent investigators and administrators have laid down for instruction and for practical use? I speak now of those, both in America and in Europe, who have worked in this field, and whose number is manifold. Nor may we exclude Asia and Africa from these stations of experiment, since it was by a French army surgeon in Algeria that the first discoveries were made of the malarial mosquito, and among the Japanese has sanitary science been much advanced. But in Germany, in Scotland, in Belgium and in England, even more than in the United States, has useful progress been made in the stricter knowledge and better care of the insane, who are now numbered by the million in the countries more or less under civilization.

I have twice visited Europe, once before and once soon after Dr. Earle's death, to examine the question in several of the countries which he explored and it was there that I first saw in practice some of those improvements that America is adopting. Particularly it was my purpose to see what was achieved, prior to 1894, in the family care of the insane, a favorite theory of my first instructor, Dr. Howe, and to which Dr. Earle gave his delayed adhesion in 1890. The latter then joined with me and other men of experience (a local committee of this Conference) in making this recommendation to the Massachusetts legislature, which has since been fully carried into effect there, and partially so in other states: "There should be in this state a *qualified* lunacy commission, which, with other official boards, should provide for the chronic insane in asylums and families. Permissive power should be given to hospitals and asylums to board out their patients and take them back when necessary, without waiting the action of a central board. This is a power natural and necessary to such establishments, if they are to give their patients the best and most varied opportunities for improvement. It frequently happens that the convalescence of

poor persons would be promoted by their removal from hospitals into private families. For convalescing patients, whether rich or poor, the boarding-out system furnishes certain advantages."

While in office in Massachusetts as inspector of charities (deputy lunacy commissioner) from 1879 to 1888, I had introduced the family care system of Belgium and Scotland in 1886, and it has worked well, as it will anywhere if well administered. In 1890 and 1893 I saw it in practice at Gheel, in Belgium, and in several parishes of Scotland, where it had been regulated by law for thirty years, and included, in the whole kingdom, more than 2,000 insane persons then in family care. At Gheel, near Antwerp, the number was less—some 1,600—but the practice was centuries old, and regulated by law for generations. The system has since been extended into France, Germany, Austria and Russia.

The best example of an insane hospital which I ever saw was at Alt Scherbitz in Saxony, in June, 1893; and this opinion of mine was confirmed soon after by Dr. D. H. Tuke in London, at whose suggestion (while still in Athens, the winter before) I had inspected both the Alt Scherbitz hospital, and that at Meeremberg in Holland. At the latter I saw for the first time the men's wards in a large establishment for the insane under the charge of women as nurses. It was an innovation by the new director, Dr. Van Deventer, but was working well, as I saw, and has since been adopted in this country and in England and Scotland to some extent. When I mentioned it to Dr. Tuke he said, "Oh, that will never do!" Yet, like many other innovations, it has done, and is one of many practical improvements now in use.

Separation of the recent from the chronic insane is one of the points always in dispute. But to a certain degree this separation is inevitable and it is usually advisable, if we may test it by experience. Perhaps it is best performed in establishments including both classes under one management, but with the chronics in detached buildings or colonies. When built exclusively for the chronic, these asylums should be small, with much arable land about them, as in Wisconsin, where such small asylums have supplanted the old mixed county poorhouses, and are well administered, at a cost rather below that of equally good

care elsewhere. So far as this one state is concerned, the problem of separation is solved, and well settled, and nothing better, on so large a scale, was seen by me in Europe. Wisconsin needs to supplement it, however, by improving her curative hospitals, and adopting family care, as in Scotland.

Much has been said about "state care" of the insane, for some twenty years past; and the practice, rightly understood, is an improvement on the old mixture of central and local care and neglect, as we saw it before the Civil War.

But a great fallacy has crept into the reasoning of many persons on this subject; and "state care" has become in many states a synonym for "state cost," though the two things are essentially and substantially unlike. The care of the state, or larger jurisdiction, must extend over every insane person, because it is only by the authority of the state that jurisdiction can be exercised over the persons and the property of the insane, whether rich or poor. In a few states, notably Ohio, South Carolina and Illinois, the state treasury also undertook, long ago, to pay the cost of all the insane sent to state hospitals, whether they were rich or poor. But in most of the states, and especially in New York and New England, the poor-laws were such that from very early times the insane became in a great degree paupers, to be supported by the public under those laws, wherever they might in fact live. Now the good sense of our ancestors decided that the care of the poor was a matter of general concern, to be regulated by state law, but the cost of the poor, whether sane or insane, ought to be kept as near the place of their residence as the circumstances of each case would allow. For otherwise, relatives of insane persons and other public dependents would avoid their due share of the cost of their support by having them sent away into distant asylums, where their friends seldom saw them, and where it involved much cost to visit them often. Consequently, sons ceased to visit and support their insane parents, and parents to keep up their natural relations with insane children. State care, properly understood, led to the enforcement, if needful, and in all cases the maintenance, of the natural relations of kindred; but state cost, if paid at a distance from the former homes of the patients, and not carefully recorded for reimbursement by the families or the

local authorities, leads directly to the breaking of local ties, and the neglect and pauperization of insane persons who ought to be supported or aided by their relatives and friends, and, under the older system were so aided and visited, and not dropped out of sight and forgotten. And the tendency invariably is under this false view of "state care" to increase the size of chronic asylums, to crowd hospitals that might be curative with hopeless incurables, and thus prevent that individual and improving treatment of the patients which promotes recovery where possible, and employment and self-support where full recovery is not to be had. And a further consequence is that minute classification of the cases, upon which recovery and all improvement must mainly depend, becomes impossible in our monster asylums, whether called hospitals or not, and even the proper investigation of individual cases is thwarted or hindered. The enlargement or new building of such asylums goes constantly on, at needless expense, while the object for which hospitals are built is every year made less attainable. This is exactly the paradoxical condition specified by the Latin poet,

Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causas;

to lose the baby for the sake of saving the cradle.

One state alone, so far as I have observed, has adopted "state care" while properly distributing the cost of the insane between the treasuries of the state and the counties, or other local jurisdictions, namely, Wisconsin. There the state pays its fair share, and the localities pay theirs, while the hospitals are kept from filling up with incurables, and the insane poor are left in the neighborhood of their former friends. In Massachusetts a large metropolitan district has just been established by the state to keep the insane near Boston within easy reach of their friends, instead of sending them away fifty or one hundred miles into the distant counties.

It is the general opinion of those veteran superintendents of insane hospitals whom I have consulted, that the moral treatment of the insane has hardly advanced at all in the past half century, and that real recoveries are fewer, in proportion to the whole number cared for, than was the case before the Civil War. The more careful classification of cases and the investigation of

physical causes and adjuncts of insanity has, on the contrary, made great advances even in the past twenty years. One result of this advance, however, has been to convince the experts of the actual hopelessness of recovery in a majority of the patients who gain admission to their wards. Various reasons are assigned for this, but of the fact there can be no doubt. Incurable forms of the disease are more common than formerly, and types once regarded as hopeful no longer yield to curative treatment. But alleviations of the malady are promoted by a better training of physicians to understand its stages, and by the general introduction of training schools for nurses in all the larger hospitals and asylums for the insane. The last-named fact also provides a considerable class of experienced persons, chiefly women, in the general community who can give family care and that temporary aid known as "after care" to convalescent or improved cases when they leave the great establishments. To extend this branch of the treatment of the insane, as it is now much extending in Europe, is one main need in the United States. Another is to diminish the aggregates in chronic establishments by small colonies in connection with arable land where occupation and diminished cost can be had without lowering the standard of care, and to the visible relief of the receiving hospitals from which colonies go out, and which may retain them as tributaries under proved and scientific management. Towards this there is a marked tendency; while also the possible prevention of insanity begins to be considered through a more careful observation of the incipient stages, and the instruction of medical students, through clinics, in all the forms of degeneration and mental alienation.

Above all, the mass of the community are beginning to receive instruction in the nature of insanity, so that we may hope, the younger among us, to see the time when the daily press, so ready to put its restless foot into all manner of social happenings, will acquire some slight acquaintance with actual insanity, and not delude its millions of readers with the fairy tales that now habitually appear in its columns. If the writers of the instructed class would forego something of their imposing technical language, and seek to inform the general public, as well as to exhibit their own learning, it would greatly aid in the diffusion of

useful knowledge in a matter that, sooner or later, concerns every human being.

DISCUSSION ON MR. SANBORN'S PAPER

Mr. Graham Taylor of Chicago—By the insight and foresight of Miss Julia Lathrop, a member of this Conference and a most useful member of the Illinois State Board of Charities, a very unique summer course was given last year in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy to attendants in asylums for the insane and mentally defective. The instructors were experts in their line, one being the manual training teacher of the Chicago Normal School, who gave instructions in handicrafts in clay and wood and leather and metals, in bookbindery, and in various small crafts. These attendants were then sent to neighboring asylums where they instructed those who were irresponsive to all the other occupations or games or dances, and the instruction was welcomed by them and much appreciated. Each of the institutions in Illinois, except one, sent three or more of their highest grade attendants; and when other states heard of this class, Indiana, Nebraska, New York and New Jersey asked to have their attendants admitted. So uniform and high have been the commendations of this summer course that we have decided to enlarge it by adding outdoor occupations. Through the great courtesy of the Chicago South Park Commissioners, the great recreation centers of the South Park system have been put at our disposal, and the superintendent of those recreation centers has been permitted to take up the course in outdoor occupations. The Journal of the American Medical Society, all the superintendents of the asylums whose attendants registered for this course, and many others high in the study of mental diseases, have assured us of the high value of these occupations in aiding the recovery of certain classes of insane. The superintendent of the Ogdensburg Asylum made the further suggestion that the occupation of these attendants, who receive very low wages for very trying work, can thus be raised and dignified by giving them some expert training which will increase their efficiency, as well as increase the effectiveness of the treatment given in these institutions. I shall be very glad to send full information to any one who will address me at Chicago, or who will address Miss Lathrop at Hull House, regarding this course. This is not for pecuniary profit. We simply desire to give as much advantage to as many people as possible, in offering this course. One of the pleasantest surprises of my life was last summer in the Dunning Institution for Insane near Chicago. I found there a young woman who had received this training, surrounded by a group of the insane, who with great pride showed me the baskets they had woven. If among that group there was a sister or mother or child of ours, we would be extremely grateful that a trained and experienced attendant was in charge of our loved ones, rather than one who could merely exercise custodial care.

THE TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL INSANE IN GENERAL AND PENNSYLVANIA'S PROSPECTIVE TREATMENT IN PARTICULAR

BY DR. T. C. FITZSIMMONS, CARBONDALE, PA.

(*Abridged.*)

At no time in the world's history have diseases of the nervous system attracted so vast an amount of attention as during the past twenty years of the present generation. As said by Dr. Weir Mitchell: "Little by little they have become better understood and have gradually assumed the importance of a well-defined department of medical knowledge." Dr. M. Allan Starr states in the preface of his recent work on the "Nervous Diseases, Organic and Functional," that "The investigations and discoveries in neurology during the past ten years have made the diagnosis of nervous diseases less difficult and more exact, so that it is now possible to trace any symptom presented by a patient to some disturbance of a function in a definite nerve center or nerve tract."

As a result of these investigations a precise classification has been made, thus enabling the nerve specialist to define and describe in the great majority of cases the specific malady which he has under observation. Resulting from this scientific advance more and better public and private hospitals for the custodial care and treatment of the mentally afflicted have been founded during the past fifteen years than during the previous half century. Particularly true is this of the United States, where today the best equipped and most efficient hospitals for the care and treatment of such patients are found. Times there were when all that was progressive and scientifically accurate in the realm of mental pathology was to be found in France, Germany, Italy and England. But such is the condition no longer. The brightest lights in the field of psychiatry in this country visit the comparatively old and long established hospitals and institutions in Europe and return to tell us that their best asylums, both public and private, are no better than those we regard as mediocre. The states have, within the period

I have designated, founded institutions for the treatment of insanity; hospitals that in their general efficiency were unthought of thirty years ago. And yet no disease known to the science of medicine has made such rapid increase as insanity.

Up to ten years ago Pennsylvania had not given the attention to this form of public institutions that her wealth, numerical strength and scientific standing in the world of medicine warranted. Public criticism directed against the inadequate accommodation afforded by her asylums for the care of insane was loud and persistent. This was the cause of creating the county care of insane. Counties of large population and wealth under the management of their guardians of the poor built asylums in connection with their almshouses and thus cared for their insane in their own local institutions. During the last decade all of the state asylums have been greatly enlarged and in addition laws were enacted establishing three large and superiorly equipped public state asylums. The first of these was for the care of the chronic insane and is located at Wernersville in the beautiful Lebanon Valley in the southeastern part of the state. The second was the extensive group of buildings now nearly completed at Rittersville, between Allentown and Bethlehem, in Lehigh county. This will be under the care of homeopathic physicians and will be for the care and treatment of all forms of insanity other than the criminal and chronic insane. The third and most important, judged from any standpoint, and the one with which I will deal particularly at this time, is that for the criminal insane now in course of construction at Farview, Wayne county.

The advisability of treating this class of insane in separate institutions constructed along lines particularly adapted for their care has long been apparent. At the present time seven of the most progressive states in the Union, among which are New York, Ohio and Wisconsin, have such state hospitals and the results obtained have been eminently satisfactory.

When I use the words "criminal insane" I use them in their most broad and comprehensive sense. That is, in my groupings of criminal acts done by the mentally afflicted I do not confine my category to the more heinous or more serious offenses, but include everything of a criminal nature whether

it be the striking of a child, the stealing of an apple or the murder of a fellow creature. Where the tendency of the unbalanced is to perform acts of a mischievous kind, thus demanding the watchful care and attention of some person to prevent them from committing some offense, trivial or serious, it places them, in my opinion, in the list of the criminal insane.

It has been stated by some students of criminology that the number of criminal insane is comparatively small and in proof of this they cite the court records, which, it is true, show a comparatively small number of such cases. I hold that this is not the proper channel through which to reach accurate conclusions. In the vast majority of cases where persons are committed to asylums for insane the matter of their criminal tendencies is but one of various reasons for adjudging them of unsound mind.

About fifteen years ago, when I was engaged in the general practice of medicine, I was called in consultation with a physician in a neighboring village. The patient was a young married woman, the mother of a baby about ten months old; she was suffering from melancholic dementia and had a vague apprehension that the child, when grown up, would in some way become a menace to the family and society in general. And in a rambling and partly incoherent manner she kept repeating, "What is my duty and what does God require of me under these circumstances?" I warned the attending physician and family as to the dangers to be apprehended from her mental condition and gave minute directions to have the baby taken from her and have her, the mother, placed in a hospital for the insane without delay. The family appeared loath to do this and pleaded for time, hoping for improvement, and thus avoid the stigma of having her classed among the insane. I had scarcely reached my office, six miles away, when I received the horrible information that she had murdered her baby. She was, of course, at once adjudged insane and placed in an asylum, but the harm had been done.

The murder of Postmaster Morgan of New York City by Mackay, the escaped lunatic, in 1904, is vividly recalled at this time. Mackay had been formerly adjudged insane and had been committed to an ordinary asylum in the state of Mas-

sachusetts, from which he escaped, and believing that Postmaster Morgan was in some way instrumental in his commitment to the asylum, sought him out and murdered him.

During the month of February last, Mary Smith, a single woman, 33 years of age, entered the reception room of Mayor Reyburn's office in Philadelphia and demanded $9 of the mayor with which to pay her way back to Buffalo, stating that unless he gave her the money she would certainly murder him. She was arrested and later examined by a couple of physicians and pronounced of unsound mind, irresponsible for her conduct, and was at once placed in an asylum for the insane.

Now in not a single instance did any of the cases I have here recounted appear in the court records, hence no official account is to be found of their being criminal insane. Did time and space permit I could cite a vast number of similar cases in proof of the assertion that the number of criminal insane is greatly in excess of the number which the general public and state officials believe to exist.

Is it fair or just to place such victims of mental delusions in institutions or wards where the inoffensive and harmless demented are incarcerated? I think you will readily and freely agree with me that such is not the place for them, but rather should they be isolated and segregated in institutions designed and constructed for their separate and particular care and treatment.

The state hospital now in course of construction at Farview has been designed with the greatest care and by the advice of the best neurological and psychiatric experts in this country. The architect was selected on account of his superior knowledge of such institutions and when the drawings were completed they were, before being approved by the building commission of the Board of Charities and Lunacy of the State of Pennsylvania, minutely examined by the medical superintendents of most of the best asylums for criminal insane and private hospitals for insane in general to be found in this country. No pains or expense were spared by the building commission in seeking and obtaining the best advice and counsel of hospital and institution experts and whatever changes in the plans were suggested for the greater perfection and efficiency of the

proposed state hospital were readily adopted. The plans then as perfected and approved by the state authorities designated to pass on such matters, were pronounced to be the very best that the present knowledge of this subject warranted.

In designing and arranging the plans two important characteristics had to be constantly kept in view. They were that the institution was to be a compound one possessing two widely distinctive qualifications and yet intimately associated one with the other. That is, it was to be a jail, a place of safe incarceration for a dangerous and offensive class, from which no escape could be remotely possible. It should have all the modern safeguards thrown round about it and yet in doing this it was to be shorn of that somber penitentiary-like appearance so depressive and offensive to the mentally strong as well as to the mentally weak. Similarly it must be a hospital possessing every degree of the sanitarium aspect, designed with a view to afford the greatest opportunities and facilities for buoying up and making cheerful and pleasant a mind sick and haggard through mental depression. It must possess every feature conceivable by the advanced scientific thoughts and considerations of the master minds engaged in such labors and thus make it what the people of Pennsylvania and the country at large have a just right to expect—an institution reaching the highest perfection of its kind.

Never since the foundation of government in this country has Pennsylvania occupied a second place in the science of medicine. It was the first state in the Union to establish a medical college. It was the second to establish a hospital for insane. Since the separate and distinctive treatment of the criminal insane has been successfully adopted her expert criminologists have strenuously advocated the building of an institution such as is now in course of construction at Farview.

Comparatively satisfactory though the progress has been along the lines herein designated, we have not yet reached perfection. In what part or section of a state should asylums for the insane, particularly the criminal insane, be located? What manner and style of buildings should be erected and under what and whose jurisdiction should the work be carried on? First, as to the location of the institution. I hold that it

should be built reasonably far from congested centers of population. That is, it should be situated in a place where the means of approach is not attractively accessible and thus render the asylum a popular center for visitors, as no class of the mentally or physically afflicted should be less subjected to extensive observation than the criminal insane. When located near large cities or attractive suburban villages, institutions are made the popular attraction for visitors. I think it will be readily conceded that such asylums should not be made attractive show centers, and that while the friends or those directly interested in the inmates should be afforded facilities for visiting them, people interested only through idle curiosity should seldom or never be permitted access. The law creating state hospitals for the criminal insane specifically designates who has legal rights to officially investigate the manner of care and treatment, and as the number is sufficiently large no harm can come to the inmates through the circumscribed observation at the asylum.

The altitude upon which the buildings should be erected ought to afford the best drainage obtainable. The scenery surrounding the institution should be attractive. The water supply should be abundant, pure originally and not purified, and should be from a source where contamination would be impossible. The land connected with the institution should be extensive, not less than two acres to the inmate, and the soil of a quality sufficiently fertile to make farming comparatively easy and reasonably profitable. It should be of a kind where fruit peculiar to the climate can be readily raised in abundance. There should be located on the grounds of such a hospital two groves of from fifteen to twenty acres each for the accommodation of each sex, sufficiently distant one from the other as to keep the sexes easily and safely separated. The buildings should be located on sloping grounds where the front faces the south or southeast, thus protecting this portion of the buildings from west and northwest winds and giving the main entrances and porches the benefit of a southerly exposure. Where a free, uninfluenced and untrammeled opportunity is afforded a commission to select a site best suited in every detail, all of the features and provisions which I have here enumerated are

easily obtainable. I would particularly warn a commission appointed for the purpose of securing a site for such a hospital against accepting free gifts, simply because they are free. They frequently become the most expensive sites procurable. I do not say that free gifts of such sites should never be accepted, as sometimes they possess every requisition essential for the establishment of a perfectly located institution. What I do maintain is that they should not be accepted simply because they are free, regardless of their other requirements.

Farview, the site of the new Pennsylvania State Hospital for Criminal Insane, is, as the name indicates, located in a position where the view is "far." It is a view of magnificent distance on a plateau of the Moosic range of mountains as they extend from north to south through Wayne county. It consists of a plot of 640 acres, 250 of which are arable lands. The remainder consists of beautiful groves of chestnut, maple and oak trees, also a fair-sized grove of hickory. There is an inexhaustible supply of pure water, derived from mountain springs which have never been known to run dry even during periods of the most excessive and protracted drought. For an altitude so high the temperature is comparatively equable, not varying more than 6 degrees from that of Philadelphia. The hospital buildings are protected from western and northern winds by the summit of the mountains, which are 300 feet higher than the slopes upon which the hospital proper is located. It is situated along the line of the D. & H. Company's railroad, between Carbondale and Honesdale, a distance of four miles from the former and twelve miles from the latter. It is twenty miles distant from Scranton, a city of 130,000 population and the third largest city in the state. It is a ride of five hours from Philadelphia and is reached from that city by four railways. From Pittsburgh, which is the farthest distant of any city in the state, it is about 400 miles and is reached from there by the Pennsylvania Railroad. From its high altitude it is delightfully cool in summer and not excessively cold in winter on account of the mountain and grove protection against the most severe winter winds.

The buildings consist of a block or group with some extensive projections which are the administration building, the men's

and women's infirmary, another building which has been designed but as yet not definitely located as an assembly room which will be used for religious and amusement exercises of different kinds. The buildings are all connected.

This hospital is being constructed by a commission appointed by the legislature, composed of six members, they having the power to select an architect and elect a superintendent of construction.

I have said that the criminal insane, in my opinion, should receive separate and distinctive care and treatment. That the lawmaking powers of Pennsylvania believe accordingly is apparent from the fact that they are erecting what will eventually be one of the greatest hospitals of its kind in this country. It is my earnest hope that other states not having institutions for the separate care of this unfortunate class will follow in the wake of those which have and thus continue the exact classification of mental defects of whatever kind or class.

LETCHWORTH VILLAGE, NEW YORK STATE'S NEW INSTITUTION FOR DEFECTIVES

BY COMMISSIONER FRANKLIN B. KIRKBRIDE

The successful merchant will tell you that "goods well bought are half sold," and we hope it is just as true that "the institution well planned is half built."

Governor Hughes said, in his first message to the legislature, that there is no better test of a state administration than is afforded by its care of the poor, the sick, the feeble-minded and the insane.

New York has always taken an advanced position of responsibility for its defectives, and it disputes with Massachusetts the honor of being the first state to provide for their care and education.

The Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children was opened in 1851, the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women was established in 1878 at Newark, the Rome

State Custodial Asylum was founded in 1894, and in 1896 the foundation of Craig Colony set a new standard for the care of epileptics.

It gradually became evident that even this provision was inadequate. The State Board of Charities, the State Charities Aid Association and others responsible for or interested in the care of defectives, began to agitate for the foundation of a new institution in the southeastern part of the state. As a result of their efforts, the legislature of 1907 passed an act providing for the appointment of a commission to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum.

The authorities of the existing institutions for defectives had long since realized, through their own practical experience, the need of more provision for the feeble-minded and epileptic. The proposed institution has, therefore, from the start had the advantage of their cordial support, and comes into existence as a logical development of the state's system of care for its defective wards.

The act directed that an investigation be made of the number of epileptic and other feeble-minded persons needing state care, and it authorized the selection of a site, not exceeding 500 acres, and the preparation of a plan of development for the new institution, including preliminary estimates of cost.

The commission found the existing institutions crowded to their full capacity (3,250), over one thousand names on their waiting lists, two thousand defectives supported in almshouses and elsewhere at public expense, and, by a conservative estimate, some fifteen thousand others at large in the community. As there was imperative need to provide for all those improperly confined in almshouses and elsewhere, and for many others who have not even the slight protection of the almshouse, it was manifest that the capacity of the new institution ought not to be less than twenty-five hundred.

The approximate cost of maintenance of inmates who should be in the state institutions for the feeble-minded and epileptic, and who are now supported by counties and cities, is $416,000 for the past year.

The commission's investigations also showed that over half the inmates of the state institutions for defectives and 60 per cent. of the names on their waiting lists come from the southeastern part of the state, while all the institutions are in the central and western part of the state.

The commission took the ground that, in the poor law and the penal code, the state of New York has accepted the theory of state care for defectives. Moreover, from the standpoint of economy, it is essential that the feeble-minded and epileptic should be segregated, while from the side of eugenics the prevention of feeble-mindedness is still more important. The commission accordingly urged that the scope of the new institution should be broad enough, and its site large enough, to meet the needs of the situation. It recommended that cases should be received at the earliest possible age and that, as they advance in years and training, they should be transferred from one department to another, remaining, if necessary, to the end of their lives. Indeed the state's system of care for dependent defectives will never be really adequate until the same authority for their detention is granted which now obtains in the case of the insane.

The commission summed up its conclusions as follows:

> "As a matter, then, of self-protection, as well as in the interests of humanity, morality and common decency, to say nothing of economy, the state must aim to live up to its obligations. This it can do only by making provision for all dependent feeble-minded and epileptic persons in the state, of both sexes and all ages, taking them at the earliest possible age, training them to the highest efficiency of which they are capable, and then providing them with permanent custodial care, under as nearly normal conditions as their powers allow."

It was evident that the problem was a much larger one than had at first been supposed, and that a site of five hundred acres would be utterly inadequate.

After careful search, a site was found in Rockland county which seemed extraordinarily well adapted to the needs of the new institution. It consists of some 1,354 acres of good farm-

ing and wood land for the main site, and a mountain tract of 640 acres for the protection of the water supply.

Experts were called in to pass judgment on the suitability of this site. They included institution superintendents, real estate experts, landscape architects and engineers. Careful studies were made of the water supply, to determine both quality and quantity. Sewage disposal, transportation and other problems were investigated, and after the most searching examination, the verdict in favor of the proposed site was unanimous.

In accordance with our recommendations, an act was passed by the legislature of 1908, and later signed by the governor, appropriating $188,575 for the purchase of the site in Rockland county, containing 2,000 acres; just four times the size authorized in the original law.

The institution is designed to supplement those now in existence, and while caring for the needs of the southeastern part of the state, is also to afford much-needed relief by taking cases already receiving care in institutions not designed for their treatment.

The new institution is to take feeble-minded patients of both sexes, of all ages and of every type, except the insane. It has therefore been necessary to plan for adequate classification, for separation of the sexes, and for treatment and training suited to the varying needs of the future inmates.

During the past year a survey has been made of the site to determine its boundaries and those of the thirty-three farms of which it is composed. A careful topographic map has been made as the basis of a plan for the development of the property. In working out the preliminary plan of the buildings and their location, the commission has been fortunate in having the co-operation and advice both of the state architect, Franklin B. Ware, and of an advisory committee consisting of Dr. William P. Spratling, Dr. Walter E. Fernald, Robert W. Hebberd, Homer Folks and Dr. L. Pierce Clark.

The recommendations embodied in the Commission's report to the legislature of 1909 had the unanimous approval of this committee. Senator Allds, chairman of the finance committee of the senate, introduced a bill providing for the organization

of the new institution, which was indorsed by the Speaker and Mr. Merritt, majority leader of the assembly, and later became a law.

The act of 1909 renames the institution "Letchworth Village" in honor of William Pryor Letchworth, president of the Eleventh National Conference of Charities and Correction, whose efforts in behalf of the defective wards of the state are thus fittingly commemorated. With the inspiration of Mr. Letchworth's name before them, the managers and officers of the new village will have a powerful incentive to make the institution one of the very best in the country and one which will set new standards of treatment and training.

The governor has shown his interest by not only recommending in his annual message that the legislature make an adequate appropriation for the construction of the institution, but by sending in the closing hours of the session, an emergency message to urge an appropriation for preliminary work.

The appropriations for the current year aggregate $45,942.25, and include $10,000 for repairs and alterations to buildings now on the site, and $20,000 for the construction of a spur track to connect with a branch of the Erie Railroad, which passes through one corner of the property. Owing to the many demands upon the state treasury, the governor was obliged to postpone much new construction, including, I regret to say, a dam for water storage, for which $50,000 had been appropriated. The state is, however, committed to the policy for which "Letchworth Village" stands, and the length of time taken in the development of the property and the erection of buildings will hereafter depend largely on the condition of the state treasury.

The plan, as outlined by the commission, provides for a main division by sex. Minisceongo Creek, which flows through the center of the tract, forms a natural boundary. The women and girls will be placed to the west of the stream, the men and boys on the high ground to the east of it.

In the middle of the property, not far from the stream, will be the village street, on which will stand the administra-

tion buildings, and here much of the life and work of the place will be centered.

It is planned to have groups of moderate size, with no buildings to hold over 100 inmates. The largest will be for the lower grades of cases. From this extreme the buildings will range in size to the cottages for the highest grade cases which will accommodate about twenty-five each. The groups are to be far enough apart to give each a distinct character. Each building is to be separated from the others in the same group by sufficient space to make it an independent unit, so as to permit of careful classification and segregation of the various types of patients.

And now, just a word as to the valley tucked away among the foothills of the Ramapo Range, where the village is soon to rise:

It was on a splendid October day, a little more than a year and a half ago, that the commission first saw it. The fertile farms, the picturesque hills, the autumn colors, the apple orchards, the little French boarding house with its guests lunching under a great horse-chestnut tree, a sportsman with a dog and gun—all helped to form a delightful impression which closer acquaintance has only intensified.

An hour's trip from New York takes us to West Haverstraw. One advantage of the site is that the boat of the Department of Public Charities of New York City can bring patients and their friends directly up the Hudson to Haverstraw landing. From there a drive of three miles takes us to Thiells postoffice, on the edge of the state property. A short uphill pull from Thiells and the valley lies spread before one. Cheesecock Mountain stands out conspicuous among the protecting hills to the north and west. From every height are views of the Hudson, from High Tor to Stony Point. Following westward up Minisceongo Creek we come into still wilder country, protecting the water supply, and on the western boundary of the tract we reach an elevation of 1,100 feet.

The fertile main valley is well adapted for farming. A large deposit of clay will enable the village to make its own bricks. Secluded spots among the hills will also make it possible to have self-sustaining groups somewhat separated from

the village. When one is on the spot it is easy to imagine that an outdoor life with occupation and training suited to the powers of each inmate should make the village, like Rasselas' Happy Valley, a place where peace, contentment and hope will abound. And if any of you think this statement exaggerated, go and see for yourselves.

The work of our commission has been completed in less than two years. With the appointment and organization of a board of managers our duties will end. Upon its seven managers will devolve the task of creating a great state institution, which we confidently believe will be not only a credit to this state but an encouragement to all who are striving to make the care and education of our defectives the best in the world.

PREVENTABLE BLINDNESS

BY GEORGE ALLEN HUBBELL, PH. D., EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, NEW YORK CITY

(*Abstract.*)

Every age has its special activities; the most pronounced feature of this age is the trend of effort for the prevention of all injurious agencies. This has been aptly termed the age of preventative medicine. Now there is a great campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis. There is definite effort for the prevention of diphtheria, typhoid fever, insanity, and last, of blindness itself.

The prevention of blindness is not a new idea to the medical profession; but to the lay public it is very recent. So far as we have been able to learn, the first lay committee for the prevention of blindness was that appointed by the New York Association for the Blind, June 1, 1908. It was organized with a lawyer for its chairman; the membership includes physicians who are eminent specialists in obstetrics, or in the diseases of the eye; besides these, men and women of long ex-

perience and special ability in various phases of philanthropic work.

OBJECT OF THE COMMITTEE

"The object of the committee is to ascertain the direct causes of preventable blindness, and to take such measures in co-operation with the medical profession as may lead to the elimination of such causes."

WORK OF THE COMMITTEE

It at once proceeded to the study of the common causes of blindness. These divide themselves into two classes—the preventable and the inevitable. No amount of care will ever save some eyes from some infection, and no amount of mechanical protection can save an exposed eye from certain accidents, or from the evil effects of improper medicine, or from the results following many of the common diseases, such as smallpox, measles, scarlet fever, or certain acute inflammations.

The common causes of preventable blindness are ophthalmia of the new-born; later pus infections; hereditary syphilis; sympathetic inflammations; some industrial accidents; some accidents in play; progressive nearsightedness; inflammatory and other causes.

Ophthalmia of the new-born is dangerous, is due to an infection, is preventable, and if taken early, is a curable disease. It is a severe inflammation of the eyes manifesting itself soon after birth, and leaving the child with impaired vision, or absolute loss of sight within a few days unless prompt and efficient treatment has been administered. It is widely distributed, and though more common where the standard of living is low, it is not by any means confined to the poor or degraded.

Ten schools for the blind reported in 1907 the following as the proportion of those admitted who had lost their sight from ophthalmia neonatorum:

Schools for the Blind	New Admissions	Percentage of Ophthalmia of New-Born
New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y.	13	30.7
Pennsylvania Institute for the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.	27	33.33
Perkins Institute and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Boston, Mass.	43	30.00
Colorado School for the Blind, Colorado Springs, Colo.	7	42.80
Western Pennsylvania Institute for the Blind, Pittsburg, Pa.	28	28.57
Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, Mo.	19	31.57
Connecticut State Board of Education for the Blind, Hartford	8	12.50
Ohio State School, Columbus	61	9.83
Maryland School for the Blind, Baltimore	13	30.77
Ontario Institute for the Blind, Brantford, Ont.	23	21.74

This shows that more than 25 per cent. were blind from ophthalmia of the new-born. In one of the state schools, twice within a decade, 50 per cent. of the annual admissions were blind from this disease.

In the report of the Boston Nursery for Blind Babies, for 1907-8, of the family of twenty-four babies for the year, fourteen became blind at birth from ophthalmia neonatorum. In other words, more than 58 per cent. of these children need not have lost their sight had they received proper care when they were born.

Soon a popular pamphlet bearing the title, "Children Who Need Not Have Been Blind," was issued by the committee; it at once attracted widespread attention and was received with approval by the medical and general press throughout the state and nation, and with other literature has been sent to all the important charitable and philanthropic institutions of the country, to hospitals, dispensaries, medical societies, agricultural institutes, to the members of nurses' associations and home economics associations; to more than 300 newspapers

of the state, to members of the state legislature and of congress, and to private inquirers by the hundreds. Applications have come from foreign countries, including England, France, Italy, and lately Turkey.

The literature of the committee is nothing like complete, but a splendid beginning has been made in the fields already entered. The recently revised No. 1 deals with the commoner causes of preventable blindness and is intended for general distribution. The committee has gathered the more important laws bearing on preventable blindness, particularly on ophthalmia neonatorum, and the regulations governing midwives. This is only a preliminary step to a larger plan of legislation, which seems to be necessary.

It must not be assumed that the committee is the only organization working for the prevention of blindness. For years members of the medical profession have been interested in the subject, and on occasions have made addresses and adopted resolutions in their organizations, which being adopted, were put aside, and straightway were all but forgotten in the busy demands upon the physicians' time and strength. But chief among the movements is that in the medical profession itself. The American Medical Association has a standing committee on ophthalmia neonatorum, of which the eminent Dr. F. Park Lewis, of Buffalo, is the chairman. A large plan is in process of accomplishment throughout the United States. Every state has its committee on ophthalmia neonatorum, and physicians in many of them have been prompt to sustain the efforts of the State Department of Health in its requirements for protection against this disease.

Commissioner Porter, of the New York State Department of Health, was among the first to respond to this movement, and through the efforts of the department, a great many physicians of the state have voluntarily pledged themselves to use a prophylactic in the eyes of every new-born child.

The state legislature recently adopted a law requiring the notification of births within thirty-six hours. The time used to be ten days; but now the negligent practitioner who has forgotten to use, or to take with him his silver salts, the ignorant or careless midwife, is suddenly confronted with those

questions on the certificate which he or she is obliged to answer and post within thirty-six hours of the birth of the child; she is also suddenly confronted with the possible penalty if anything should go wrong with the child's eyes. "It is not too late—the prophylactic shall be applied at once—it takes but two minutes." The certificate is filled out, signed and posted. No, it is not too late; the disease, if there, has been destroyed; ten days later—would be too late!

Instruction for the prevention of ophthalmia neonatorum is now regularly given to young physicians in all reputable medical colleges. Practically all nurses' training schools sound the note of warning and give directions for the use of a prophylactic. Many of the addresses to men in connection with Young Men's Christian Associations include a suitable mention of this cause of blindness. The American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis recently held a meeting in New York at the Academy of Medicine, on the prevention of blindness, and is distributing literature on this subject; but in spite of all the efforts that have been made, the melancholy procession of the blind goes on.

In the leading schools for the blind of this country, about one-quarter of those who apply for admission every year are blind from ophthalmia neonatorum. The disease is widespread. No state is exempt, and practically no station in life. It costs New York state more than $30,000 annually to care for the blind from ophthalmia neonatorum, who are in schools at the expense of the state, and these are nothing like all who are blind from this cause. It has been estimated that the total cost to the state for the support of those blind from ophthalmia neonatorum is upward of $100,000. There is no adequate record of the blind as to the direct causes of blindness, or as to its general distribution. We only know that year by year more than 25 per cent. who enter the schools are blind from a single cause.

Every motive of public interest demands that all that can be done must be done to reduce the number of dependents, and to decrease the amount of human misery. There is no other way to reduce blindness than to reduce its domain on every side. After knowledge is general as to ophthalmia

neonatorum individual cases will still be neglected, and those whose sight ought to have been preserved will still become blind. We shall never do our duty until there is efficient medical inspection in all the schools of the state; and in this the eyes must not be neglected. The physician connected with the Department of Labor, and assigned to factory inspection, has practically three years' work on his hands in the study of ventilation. A like study must be made regarding offices and their lighting. I rarely go to speak on the prevention of blindness, that someone, working in office or factory, does not complain of improper lighting conditions to which he is subjected day after day.

All our school rooms ought to be constructed in accordance with the best conditions for the eyes, and it is very doubtful whether the final word has yet been spoken as to what these conditions are. There is special need of a comprehensive and definite pamphlet on hygiene of the eye for all mental workers; particularly for school children. The best thing that can come from the agitation of the subject is not the definite amount of knowledge covered at any one time, but that arousing of interest which will induce a considerable share of the people to try seriously, wisely and carefully to care for their eyesight. "Your eyes are bread-winners—take care of them;" and long before every man is seriously concerned for his own eyesight, and for the eyesight of those dependent upon him, the problem will be practically solved.

The special committee of the New York Association for the Blind seeks to co-operate with all interested in the prevention of blindness, and asks in the work the assistance of all persons and organizations seeking to promote the social welfare. To one engaged in such a crusade, the importance of co-operation among workers is continually emphasized by experience. The loss of time and energy in duplicating work is enormous. This feeling the way in the dark from each separate center; this repeating the mistakes of those in other fields who have already been over a certain territory, should be no longer possible. There must be a general clearing house of plans, methods and experiences. The small sum which competition in charitable and social work can allow for the

study of prevention, and the publicity of methods of prevention, forbids duplication of work wherever it can be avoided.

Perhaps the most important and immediate phase of the prevention of blindness is that for the prevention of ophthalmia neonatorum. This should have and will have increasing consideration; but the only method for securing the prevention of the material causes of blindness is that which recognizes the importance of the hygiene of the eye; which seeks to eliminate every cause of preventable blindness and strives to disseminate preventive knowledge in all its forms and among all classes. Definitely to narrow the domain of blindness, those who have this interest at heart should divide the field for study, one committee taking up the investigation of lighting in factories, stores and offices; another the trades which seriously affect eyesight; another progressive myopia; another hygiene of the eye for school children and mental workers; another methods of educating. We are at one on the importance of the work in which we are engaged. We have much agreement in the methods which ought to be pursued; but there are not a few problems of major importance which have been but slightly studied, and which must be studied with patience, with open mind and with that breadth of resource and interest which will insure trustworthy results.

From this standpoint I strongly feel the need of a committee national in its interest, and so related to the whole field of activity as to utilize the labors of each and promote and conserve the efforts of all.

WHAT IS BEING DONE IN STUDYING MENTAL DEFECTIVES

BY HENRY H. GODDARD, PH. D., DIRECTOR OF PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN THE NEW JERSEY TRAINING SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED GIRLS AND BOYS, VINELAND, N. J.

(*Abstract.*)

THE OPPORTUNITY

This is the only institution in the world whose directors have seen fit to establish a Department of Research in accordance with the advanced view that society should be not simply *housing* its dependents, but much more should be *studying* them to learn how to treat, cure or prevent the condition.

THE PLAN

Feeble-mindedness has many manifestations or symptoms; also many different physical causes or conditions; e. g., a severe blow on the head in infancy may cause feeble-mindedness that will manifest itself in the lack of development of certain mental processes; a certain malformation of the heart will result in insufficient circulation of the blood, which in turn may cause feeble-mindedness of another kind. We should know all the different mental manifestations and have them correlated with the physical conditions that underlie them. We would then know how to treat each case and what was the hope of ameliorating the condition.

WHAT THIS LABORATORY PLANS TO DO

By careful observation and experiment we are learning and recording the exact mental state of each child—his abilities and his limitations. When death occurs and an autopsy is allowed we examine the organs of the body. A careful comparison of enough cases will then show us what mental manifestations are correlated with certain physical conditions. This

work will be done by psychological, neurological and anatomical experts.

Besides the psychological study of the living child we must have careful measurements of his body to learn if there is abnormal growth in any part. This will be done by a trained anthropometer.

We must know if the digestive process, the process of assimilation, the blood formation, the secretions and excretions, are the same in these children as in normal people. Perhaps feeble-mindedness is sometimes caused by something here that could be corrected if we understood. For this work a bio-chemist will be needed.

At least 80 per cent. of feeble-mindedness is inherited. Most important of all our work must be to discover the conditions under which it is transmitted. There is only one way to do this. That is to send competent persons tactfully and wisely to interview parents, relatives or others who know the facts.

In the application of all we learn to the problem of mental deficiency from its social aspect—the improvements of the race and the prevention of this terrible drain upon society—we must use the public school. Compulsory education will bring every child to official notice. He can then be cared for as his condition needs. Our work, then, must correlate itself with the "special class" work of the public schools.

Of course we must have a complete library of the subject and ample means for publication and for carrying on a campaign of education through the press, the lecture and the schools.

WHAT IS ALREADY ACCOMPLISHED

We publish a small monthly paper that is doing excellent work as far as it goes.

We have a summer school for teachers—especially those who contemplate "special class" work.

In bio-chemistry we have carried on some feeding experiments.

On the neurological-anatomical side we have held six autopsies with valuable results.

Anthropometry—We have worked out curves of height and weight based on 8,000 children. These bring out important facts concerning the growth of this class of children. We have studied the strength of grip of these children and discovered that it varies with the depth of the mental defect and we can tell (on the average) the degree of feeble-mindedness of a child by finding out how much he can grip.

Preliminary work on heredity has been done by sending to parents a list of questions. From these charts have been constructed that throw a startling light upon the effect of alcohol, of tuberculosis, of immorality and of neurotic conditions upon the production of feeble-mindedness. If anything can ever convince people of the need of reform on these lines and of the need of laws to help toward such reform, it certainly is such charts as these. Striking as it already is, this phase of the work will be immeasurably more valuable when supplemented by the personal interviews alluded to above.

On the psychological side, every child who enters the institution is now tested and these tests are repeated at intervals. We already have a body of records of great value both in themselves for statistical study of different mental processes and also in connection with the anatomical findings at the autopsies.

With the psychometer we have measured the strength and variability of the emotions. With the ergograph we have measured the fatigue and attention of the children. We have tested the senses, the memory, the power of association and many other processes.

The form board, the ataxiagraph, the precision test, the color test, the audiometer all give us valuable information. The set of tests devised by Professor DeSanctis of Rome, Italy, has been used; also the more elaborate ones planned by Professor Binet of Paris.

The work has had an humble beginning, has grown reasonably in three years, has begun to produce results and promises to be of enormous value in helping solve the great problems, both educational and social, connected with dependents.

Families and Neighborhoods

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY ROBERT A. WOODS, SOUTH END HOUSE, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AND THE NATION

What I have to present tonight is not so much a report on behalf of the committee as it is a prospectus with regard to the field and scope of this newly-named section of the National Conference of Charities.

The name of this section referred for some years to the care of needy families in their own homes. The old title suggested the time when progress was being made from the strictly almshouse method of dealing with poverty. The time came when it seemed better as far as possible to help people in their own homes. That change meant that philanthropy began to discern that there were important social needs on a social level somewhat above the ordinary almshouse patient. This change in title to Families and Neighborhoods indicates that we are again raising our standard of effort, and broadening it so as to include the family which not only is able to stand together as a family, but has a distinct neighborhood setting as well, the group of families which make vital units of some neighborhood.

Mr. Lee, in his very searching and illuminating address this morning on the integrity of the family, covered the first half of this title. He told us very truly that the family was a most venerable institution; that it dated back to the earliest days of human history, and even beyond the beginnings of human history, since it was not humanity that created the family but the family created humanity.

Now the neighborhood is a still more ancient institution than the family. There were neighborhoods before there were families. If there had not been neighborhoods to provide social ex-

perience, there never would have been any families. And in truth there never have been any families which did not seek the neighborhood as a sort of social menstruum in which they should float.

As the stage came when the family used to pick up and be on the move, it soon discovered that it was necessary for it to increase or ramify and make itself over into a neighborhood. That is what the old clans were.

Now a neighborhood, and every larger as well as smaller social unit, is moved predominantly not by the goad of hard necessity nor yet by the spur of ambition. All these social units are moved by their loyalties. The difficulty about much of our philanthropic work is that it deals almost exclusively either with the necessitous on one hand or with the ambitious on the other. But here from the point of view of large public influence is a serious limitation. There is a great field awaiting and demanding our efforts, in that vast section of the community which is above all distinguished by its loyalty—I refer particularly to the well established and regularly paid working class which is characterized by all the various forms of association, and which finds its interest and vents its activity upon its loyal associations.

In the neighborhood we find all of the human loyalties getting at least some sort of expression. All of the extra-family loyalties can be found in the neighborhood; and all of these extra-family loyalties are vital to the family. They react upon the family. They act as a buttress. They constitute a kind of arch which holds the family together. The neighborhood is the only social unit which includes in essence every kind of community need, and the resources to meet it, in such compact shape as to be understood and handled by every party in interest.

Another very important fact about the neighborhood is this: no matter how poor or how alien it is, it is never, in its own consciousness, abject. It always stands in the dignity of all its inherent loyalties. The neighborhood gossip sets forth the potential legislation of the local folkmote in shaping the local civilization. The neighborhood represents life on all points of human relations, not on the basis of a few specific sub-

jective ideas. It is not a smooth, cut-and-dried scheme, full of imitation, but a drama full of initiative and adventure. Every day in a neighborhood is a new day.

We are learning that personality is what we have called the individual plus all the relations and ties and ambitions and hopes of that individual; not until you really understand and have some share in these ties, and begin to work back through them toward the center of the personality, can you understand or influence that personality. The neighborhood is a very genuine type of the social extension of personality. It has the rounded scope of personality. It has the appealing reality of the personal life, the spontaneity that goes with it, and it responds readily to every appeal to its self-respect; and like most persons, it does not like to be reformed. The neighborhood, therefore, presents a challenge to real democratic access to the family. It also furnishes the way. The natural approach to people is always possible in the life of a neighborhood, through that sometimes apparently meaningless but always vital thing which we call sociability. It is this which makes it possible in some way or other for one to become an actual participant in the local social scheme of life and gives one a real and permanent influence on a democratic basis.

A neighborhool worker having placed himself under bonds to the neighborhood and its interests, must necessarily seek and depend upon the co-operation of every human being in the neighborhood. Professor James tells us that one way to accomplish a hard task is to take the first step. It is always possible to take one step, and then create a set of conditions which will everlastingly disgrace you if you do not go ahead. A person who has thus committed himself to the welfare and progress of the neighborhood is in a psychological attitude which compels him to work with, rather than for all kinds of individuals, no matter how helpless at times they may be. So, too, the concrete participation with people in the active responsibilities of a neighborhood gives a basis, which cannot so well otherwise be found, for traversing the deep social cleavages that come of racial and religious distinctions.

The collapse of institutionalism in philanthropy is forcing us back to the family, and compelling us to put reliance even

upon the less capable and responsible types of families. All of the new ideas of social progress as they percolate into the neighborhood are throwing an increased responsibility upon the family, and particularly upon the mother of the family. The great health campaign in which we are all so much interested can never be thoroughly successful until it reaches the average mother in the average neighborhood. There must, therefore, come to be guilds of mothers, possibly trade unions of mothers. If these organizations ever come about—and they must, if we are going to accomplish anything—they must be formed upon a neighborhood basis.

So, too, the collapse of institutionalism—that is, of mechanical schemes of reform—in the public life of our cities, is forcing us back to the spontaneous drama of the neighborhood. The neighborhood to most men, to nearly all women and to all children is their own public arena in which, if at all, they must learn and exemplify the living principles of city and nation. We have found out that we totally misunderstood child life, as long as we went simply on our own remembrance of what we were like when we were children. We have found that it is necessary for us, very patiently indeed, to study the child in order to know anything really about him. A great deal of our underestimate of the importance of neighborhood life results from the fact that most of us city dwellers make it perhaps the most abnormal part of our lives, that we do not live in neighborhoods. We have forgotten what a tremendous reality neighborhood life was to us once, and we are not sufficiently in the swim of the present life of any neighborhood to understand vitally what neighborhood life means. If we were, wouldn't we have a better notion of this tremendous girl problem that is coming up in our crowded cities? We have heard a great deal for years about the boy problem, and some splendid strokes of work have been accomplished to meet it. But the social workers of all cities are confronted now with the girl problem in a way they never realized before. It is only as we get a better organized system of neighborhood life that we shall be able to understand and to deal with the girl problem.

In the neighborhood's social structure lies the opportunity

of finding, scientifically, the needs, desires and potencies of the dominant characteristic element in all our communities. In the neighborhood lies the opportunity to discover unknown and powerful sources of human helpfulness; and we never shall make our scheme of human helpfulness real, penetrating and exhaustive until we get behind the scenes of neighborhood life and open up the great power of helpfulness there. One of the convincing demonstrations of the possibilities in this direction is found in the work of many of the conferences of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, where men who work hard during the day meet at night to deal as thoroughly as they can with the needs of the poor of the community and neighborhood in which they live.

Involved in all these unexpressed and as yet ineffectual social desires is that great reserve detachment of our citizenship not yet engaged in the campaign for social reform and progress, but which, once engaged on the basis of homely, folksy neighborhood issues, will decisively turn the balance toward honest and humanly serviceable government. The neighborhood is thus the nascent unit of political rehabilitation in our cities and towns. A steadily increasing proportion of the accurate, specific service, leading to such rehabilitation, is coming out of that objective participation in neighborhood sentiment and experience which takes the sporting chance with every phase of all the unexpected contretemps which go with the life of the local community. The finger of fate is pointed at sanitary and moral abuses when they are chased in and caught in their neighborhood setting. Such a study of great sanitary evils as was made at Hull House, and resulted in the reorganization of the sanitary administration of Chicago, is a case in point. And the plan now on foot to get the national census to compile its data by blocks in all the large cities, is a concession to the results that have been got in specific instances through this scientific method of the neighborhood worker.

The extension of social service out from our schools, our hospitals and dispensaries, our courts and reformatory institutions, calls more and more insistently for a neighborhood network of strongly recuperative influences into which each case

on parole shall safely fall. It is found increasingly, by practical neighborhood experience, that the families which have some strain of degeneration in them, which have been under the attention of some charitable or reformatory agency, if they are not properly referred back to the scheme of neighborhood improvement, and not properly and effectively taken up into that scheme, those families prove an increasing curse to that neighborhood. We are learning that in every direction of social reform, it is of no use, it is even worse than useless, to be partial and piecemeal. We must start in in each direction to do a complete piece of work. By taking one neighborhood at a time we can get experience in accomplishing work of relative completeness.

We are learning also that we must not only undertake to do a thing completely, but get everybody concerned to work with us. By working in the neighborhood units, it is possible for us accurately and practically to elicit this universal catholic sort of co-operation.

A federal union throughout the city of good citizens of the good neighbor type who are becoming such through the kindling experience on a small scale of neighborhood achievement, including social workers who are learning to make reform successfully meet the hard tests of local street-corner democracy, will bring the real reform of city government by developing an all-around, timely and locally wise, co-operative electorate. And this type of federal union of good citizens who begin in the neighborhood, will not be interested so much in technical methods as in large, penetrating, exhaustive, human aims for the municipality. Such a contagion is already organizing systematically through many of our cities and towns, and some of our states. It represents the new type of public spirit which comes into being not by the mere reaction from Tammany Hall and not by the reaction on a national scale from Jingoism. It is this sentiment which with visible effects is beginning to leaven the whole country with a new type of reconstructive, intrinsic patriotism.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE SMALLER CITIES

BY FRANCIS H. MCLEAN, FIELD SECRETARY FOR EXTENSION OF ORGANIZED CHARITY

Then because Greeks are Greeks, and hearts are hearts,
And poetry is power, they all outbroke
In a great joyous laughter with much love:
"Thank Herakles for the good holiday!"
Make for the harbor! Row and let voices sing
"In we row, bringing more Euripides!"
All the crowd, as they lined the harbor now,
"More of Euripides!" took up the cry.
We landed; the whole city soon astir,
Came rushing out of gates in common joy
To the suburb temple; there they stationed me
O' the topmast steep; and plain I told the play,
Just as I saw it, or thought I saw the while,
At our Kameiros theater, clean-scooped
Out of a hillside, with the sky above,
And sea before our seats in marble row;
Told it, and, two days more repeated it,
Until they sent us on our way again,
With good words and great wishes.

If I was asked which of the great city problems was accentuated in the smaller ones, barring organized charity considered as a method of approach from the individual to the group, I should unhesitatingly say it is the problem of a sufficiently varied public recreation. No one would accuse any of our larger centers, excepting possibly Boston, of having in general any too high a sense of delicacy or beauty in its recreation. Nevertheless there are numberless opportunities for the gradual seeping in of a widening culture. Public show places are not devoid of artistic conception, there are dreams of color in some street illuminations, there is at least variety in the hurly-burly of the streets themselves and behind it all there are thé constantly increasing opportunities to drink in of the splendid primary art of music and sometimes the drama, and painting and so on. All this have the great cities over and above the smaller. All these magnificent recreational opportunities are being enjoyed as every one knows by

increasing numbers of the immigrants; nay, indeed, they have created much of it.

If we turn to the smaller city we can never be sure of finding, besides the moving picture show, the street railroad amusement parks, often very sad places because of lack of novelty, the occasional lecture or concert, the occasional theater program, which often had better not have been given, anything beyond the library, the small public park, the playground possibly. Many exceptions there are, of course. Then, too, the indignant denizen of almost any city could tell me of some cultured group here or there doing something worth while, but I care not for that. There is no culture worth while which is not spreading culture. With more reason many might say, "But your professional baseball." To which I say amen. Summer baseball is one of the biggest factors for temperance, for instance, in any city, but—there are the winter months also. I am saying nothing of associations which are really limited to certain elements in the population. All in all, while the tendencies in the great cities may be distinctly demoralizing because of the lure of attractively garbed intemperance and other vices, one often wonders how any uncouth young man without distinct educational or artistic leanings, and with overweening vigor, can escape the lure of the illegitimate in the smaller city unless he gets the moving picture habit, under modern schemes of censorship. This often men in small cities have told me themselves.

Now this is an old, old story and is only related again because it is the most accentuated problem. I have gotten out of all manner of patience with self-satisfied cities which have voted in prohibition, without even arranging for more public lectures or concerts, who would conquer the effervescence of youth and the jaded desire for variety of the adult by "Don'ts."

Of course all of the other city problems are present in due proportion in the smaller cities. There are individual variations, and individual exceptions. I shall merely in a cursory way mention them, with a few comments. I hope I shall not be misunderstood as underrating any of them, or of those which I do not happen to mention; nor of considering them

as secondary in importance to that of recreation. In the first place, it would be simply a waste of time to describe problems which all know, rather than to consider certain factors in the shaping of a right social program. In the second place the problem of recreation, in its solution, must require other ideas and other traditions than the greater city experience affords.

HOUSING

The next most accentuated problem is undoubtedly housing. Wiser and more experienced people than I have already commented upon the fact that because the spectacular tenement is absent and the sores are hidden as the rottenness of an apple may be hidden underneath its rich red skin, there are not simply unbelievable conditions existing in many small cities. In all the smaller cities which I have visited during the last two years I have seen only *one* where, apparently, there was not a menacing housing problem, and in this one city I saw one of the worst lodging house tenements the country possesses. So there was still something to do. Recent experiences in so progressive a state as Indiana plainly indicate that even the most public spirited citizens have to be "shown" when it comes to the evil squatted down in the next street to them and which any old rotten boards may conceal from vision. "Not theirs but another city, not surely their city," every housing worker will find that the general sentiment, and yet the problem, I would venture to say, is uniformly present in all our cities and towns.

Fully as important problems are, of course, tuberculosis, the labor of women and children, juvenile delinquency, juvenile care, school inspection, industrial training, thrift projects, the elimination of extortion, adult delinquency, industrial accidents (in industrial cities), and so on through the whole range of activities considered by this National Conference. But these are not greater proportionately in the smaller towns than in the larger. Of course all of them are not present in all cities and they vary greatly in importance. Nevertheless, neglected though they are, they are not so uniformly neglected

as are recreation and housing. How many or how few items appear upon the social program of a small city, recreation and housing, I venture to say, should always be near the top.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

Nowhere does one realize the importance of the individual more acutely than in connection with the development of the philanthropic and social activities of the small city. It is impressed upon one, again and again, how much one person or a small group of three or four persons may sway a whole community in this respect. We may have our biggest givers in the metropolis but no one imagines that without their consent nothing big may be attempted by others. I believe that a careful examination of resources would ordinarily show less proportionate public or private expenditures for social work in the smaller cities than in the larger. But entirely away from that question there can be no denying the fact that the influence wielded by comparatively limited and homogeneous groups is often a practically conclusive influence. Not that nothing can grow without their sanction, but that they gather so much of the philanthropic resources to themselves that whatever new steps are taken, without their active support, are taken with extreme difficulty, require the highest bravery and the results are problematical.

When early in the game the principle of organized charity —of steady, thorough-going case work, revealing the individual needs—has been introduced and has won for itself those whom the community regards as among its leaders, and when enough data has been gathered revealing the social needs, the growth is reasonably certain, the social program gradually evolves with some system, the needs are taken up with some approximation to their relative values, or, rather, we should say, some needs are.

But where there has not been the steadying, illuminating influence of an intelligently directed, fundamental and cooperative society, drawing its deductions from the bitter experiences of life, there have grown up veritable crazy quilts of social programs. Just what happened to attract the at-

tention of the influential group, or one of several groups, has won the day and there has been more or less unconscious adaptation from other cities without any attempted local measurement. Now it is true that the great cities can show us the crudest needs unsatisfied and the most fantastic fancies embodied at financial cost, but still because there are so many groups a lot of different things are done efficiently.

Then, too, it must be remembered that the wrongs of a great city are often wrongs which cry out to the skies for redress, they shout from the very house tops. The evils of a smaller city, just as bad in the individual cases though not in the bulk, must oftentimes be discovered, unearthed in their right proportions. And because of this the vagaries of the big city become more aggravated in the smaller center. More, too, the comparatively limited social resources become so disproportionately divided that there is danger of the disproportion increasing rather than diminishing.

So in a city giving less than $50,000 for philanthropic purposes one may find a $20,000 temporary shelter for a children's home society being erected, with no organized charity society and no probation system. So one may find an unduly endowed children's home with no attempt to prevent desertion. So one may find a big social center for working girls with no consumers' league influencing wretched working conditions. So one may find a fine playground system with no sanitary code, no check to the continuance of abominable living conditions.

THE OTHER SIDE

On the other hand, the very elements which we have outlined and one or two others we will speak of now, show the promise of the future. For if the individual counts for much, that but shows that an actual grasp over conditions may be obtained by the trained worker which is not possible in the populous centers. One can actually see things move, they have moved, and there is not the numbing realization which comes to him who labors in more congested fields, that after all the net results in comparison to the weight to be moved are very small.

Then, also, the type of men and women is not one whit less strong or efficient and the outer crust of ultra conservative business ideals is oftentimes not as thick or impervious. There is cordial willingness to grasp the social vision, though there is need of education on the financial side.

LEADERS AND THE VOLUNTEER

Turn we now to the solution. Those cities which have progressed furthest along the road are those cities which have real charity organization societies, with real leaders, and out of this growing other activities with real leaders as required. I mean leadership so far as sane advice, counsel and a knowledge of fundamental conditions is concerned. Not a benevolent despotism, but where through a co-operational center all social workers are brought close to each other, and insight, reflection and a sense of proportion are imparted by the one or two or four paid workers in different lines to the whole outlook.

Mark you, I said real. The country is strewn with thoroughly useless, if not vicious, associations masquerading under some charity organization title. But I mean the kind of organization which would know its families so thoroughly that it would discover the wretched working hours of Mary Smith and Fannie Jones, and so on, in some commercial establishment. Would find out other conditions when it sought for employment for one of its girls and so when it came to a question of a new building for a working girls' center, might show the greater need of a consumers' league. Then, too, mark you that I have indicated that the leadership did not mean doing everything by paid workers. It is one of the absolutely incontrovertible facts that much more work must fall upon the volunteer in the smaller city. Some of the most striking advances in recent years have come by volunteers accepting such large absorbing tasks as would only be accepted by paid workers in larger cities. Need one more than refer to the recent housing campaign in Indiana which owed its inception and strength to a small group of friendly visitors in Evansville and, later, more particularly to one of that group

who gathered data from all over the state and led the fight to the very doors of the legislature.

So with leadership in the smaller city must come an understanding that the leadership of inspiration and advice is often the only kind required, that whether one is dealing with families in their homes, or housing, or tuberculosis, or what not, there must be the giving of absorbing, compelling and hard tasks to the volunteer. Anyone who has not the power to win the right man and woman to his appointed task, at personal sacrifice, has no place in social work in the small city.

A QUESTION FOR US ALL

There is a question for us all in connection with the orderly and sound advance in the smaller cities, and there is likewise a message which must go to the seats of higher learning and this shall be the conclusion of this very cursory survey of a big hopeful field. The question for us all is with reference to the spirit of the work and how that spirit affects the younger workers, those last in the work. Those who know the field department well, know that it has given some slight service to the cause of increased and reasonable salaries and I trust that it will never be anywhere else except in the vanguard of that fight. But I have lately come to believe that in our perfectly justifiable zeal to give dignity to a profession by demanding reasonable salaries, and by our constant talking of salaries (necessary indeed, I personally am not ashamed to always fight for increases in the field), we have forgotten that we must not too far let go of the finer human sentiments which have appealed and will always appeal with telling effect to the flower of our manhood and womanhood. Not to ask of them a sordid, underpaid existence, but that the best of them should feel the compelling spiritual fascination of the work and increase their own self-sacrifices while they are unencumbered, in the younger days of their career, by voluntarily choosing, as the opportunity comes their way, the more difficult, less paid position in the small city against the superior pay and the larger allurements of the large city. I mean

those who are capable of the largest leadership and who therefore are sought for by the larger cities.

In harking back to the not distant days of the dawn of the newer movement in this country, in the settlements field, in the organized charity field, in other fields, does not one appreciate the more frequent appearance of a higher spirit, in the papers in the Conference, upon the personal side. I don't mean the pure idealistic, though that sometimes appeared, but of a daring and a gallantry, and a vision, and a splendid satisfying horizon, on not much more than nothing a year. I fancy it would amaze some younger workers to learn the stipends of some men whose names are familiar to you all. Their work won the fight for salaries and it does not have to be won over again. Yet there is still room for the same dauntless bravery of a Childe Roland, the same possibility for sacrifices to one's ideals, the same possibility of turning aside from the path of personal vantage for the moment, to help a community, which will afford one, if one is the right one, a fuller meed of cordial affection and loyalty than we will ever meet with again. We want no cant nor hypocrisy, we want no meaningless hollow appeals, we need simply to come back into our own, to bring out the richness and fullness of a strong man's task and a strong woman's task, which is ours. Though a merry levity at the flowers of poesy marks our age, yet after all the finest, strongest spirits are those to whom, above all else, will appeal the spirit of the vision of a Sir Galahad.

> But o'er the dark a glory spreads
> And gilds the driving hail.
> I leave the plain, I climb the height;
> No branching thicket shelter yields;
> But blessed forms in whistling storms
> Fly o'er waste fens and windy fields.
>
> So pass I hostel, hall and grange,
> By bridge and ford, by park and pale,
> All armed I ride, whate'er betide,
> Until I find the Holy Grail.

Scoff as we may, cynical as we may think ourselves sometimes, we all know in our hearts, youth, at least the kind of

youth which our work requires, will not be served entirely by the purely practical, that some of the finest spirits will get by us and some will lose some of the best years of their life by not being infused with the spirit of gallantry and daring and a willingness for a few years to forsake the easier for the harder tasks at less recompense.

There is room for the occasional reincarnation of the spirit of our work.

THE COLLEGE MAN AND WOMAN

My next quarrel is with the seats of higher learning in this country. They are not sending out the men and women who can lead as volunteers in the different smaller cities to which they return.

Now far be it from me to express a wish that the volunteer leaders should always be college people. The saints forbid. If the field department worked on any such theory as that it would go far astray. Social vision is not given only to the cultured. Some of the finest bits of social accomplishment in these smaller cities I have ever seen were gained by reason of the vision of the self-made man, that much maligned individual. One of the most splendid of wild parks, one of the most exquisite parkings of the public streets was accomplished by such. One naturally does not expect to find a majority of a newly organized board composed of college people. It is your hard working business man, with no particular social accomplishments and a most practical mind, who will see more clearly the advantages of a systematized program and adopt it more quickly than anyone else.

On the other hand, I myself have felt disappointed in running across so many college people who were either wildly fluttering around, as much confused as everyone else, putting the cart before the horse, or not concerned at all with social ideas. One would think that having had some theoretical knowledge of the whole field they would at least grasp at what are the essentials more often than they do. For those who have had no training at all, who don't care, furthermore, one can only pity them as being products of an academic

system which is not concerned at all with good citizenship but entirely with individual aggrandizement. I believe most firmly that the appeal must go to the universities which do have social courses, that the endeavor be made to have them, in abbreviated forms, made more compulsory as a prerequisite to good citizenship, and, furthermore, that more of definite practicality be given to them. It ought to be possible for any young man or woman from college to at least suggest what social data must be gathered before a social program may be built upon a sensible basis.

But more specifically my appeal would go to the graduates themselves, who have no particular leanings, to begin to appreciate their responsibilities in one particular field where their education itself, no matter what it consists of, where their cultural training, counts. I refer to the development of public recreation. For there can be no doubt but that less can be entrusted to commercial interests here than in larger cities, because the returns are not large. Recreations must be cultivated and developed and there is room here for the highest display of initiative and originality. There is no time of course to indicate possible lines of advance because they would vary so considerably. But the general success in the children's field of the folk dances, only a beginning, show how the increase of not too rarefied recreation would be welcomed. Ah, yes, are not our own peoples hungry for them? I know they are, that their unvoiced cry would be also:

"In we row, bringing more Euripides."

When we have annihilated the dead level of monotony we shall see an enriched civic life. For right culture is morality and one of the staunchest foes of the vices, though we may cry "art for art's sake."

NEIGHBORHOOD CENTERS

I cannot close now without bringing home one accentuated need which concerns every city, and particularly the neighborhood activities, not only the district offices of the C. O. S., but the settlement, the church house, the day nursery and the

many others which may be mentioned. All over this land there are many, not all, but many, neighborhood centers whose workers, day in and day out, are going around with their eyes blindfolded. They are in the neighborhood but not of it. They think they know the neighborhood. They don't. They think they know their people. They don't. Why? And how do I know? Because in my endeavors to make a picture for myself of social conditions, I have asked workers about housing and other environmental conditions and found that they have formed no true picture, much less endeavored to battle with any of these evils, except possibly a disreputable saloon. They could not tell me just how good the sanitary ordinances were, whether they were being enforced, whether there was much old plumbing, how many houses had sewer connections. They were not in intimate relations with any of the other city departments, the captain of the police precinct, the division chief of the fire department, health department, the principal and teachers in the neighboring schools, the police justice. Possibly they did know the alderman because they might have come to him for favors. Fine as the work might be in clubs and classes, after all it did not touch the homes, but certain individuals in these home groups. So they have failed who have been offered the inestimable privilege, not of helping people, but of removing those dead weights which the individualistic regime has left to handicap the development of the people themselves.

Fine as the club and class work, the educational features and what not may be, no neighborhood center is a neighborhood center which is not touching the very vitals of the neighborhood itself, which does not know the absolute injustices and which knowing them is not fighting them, with intelligence and knowledge, with solidity and unswerving purpose. Here in Buffalo where the churches have so splendidly supported the neighborhood movement, I would close with a reminder of that most beautiful lyric of social service which antedated the movement of the last twenty years, which, while approaching from the Christian point of view, yet is broad enough to appeal to Christian, Jew and agnostic, and part of which sings:

Ring out the want, the care, the sin,
The faithless coldness of the times;
Ring out, ring out, my mournful rhymes,
But ring the fuller minstrel in.

Ring out old shapes of foul disease,
Ring out the narrowing lust of gold,
Ring out the thousand wars of old,
Ring in the thousand years of peace.

Ring in the valiant man and free,
The larger heart, the kindlier hand;
Ring out the darkness of the land,
Ring in the Christ that is to be.

THE FAMILY AND THE WOMAN'S WAGE

BY MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CONSUMER'S LEAGUE

There is no subject concerning which we more persistently live in a fool's paradise than this of woman's wage. We say on all occasions that we consider the home the fundamental thing in our national life. If we really valued the home, such things could not happen as I saw last Thursday in the night court in the city of New York. A girl, seventeen years of age, was taken away by a policeman from her two-year-old, fatherless boy to spend three years in a prison which, with the bitterest irony, we call a house of mercy. No charge had been proved against her. As a little cash girl, at fourteen years, in the enlightened city of New York, she went out from her home and worked under the temptations of a great department store. Before her fifteenth birthday her little fatherless boy was born, because of the conditions under which our laws allowed her to work. Her mother thought that the home needed the little girl's wages more than the little girl needed protection. When she was seventeen years old she had been working nearly a year, every night, in a telephone exchange, and she could bear it no longer. She was so weary that she could not even endure being with her little boy during the day. Finally she left her

work, which meant taking six dollars a week out of her mother's family budget. She took her child and went away to look for other work, for her mother refused to keep the child unless the six dollars a week were paid. After a week she confessed herself beaten and sent the little boy back through a neighbor to his grandmother, with word that she believed she would have work in a few days and could take care of him. This mother sent her daughter to prison for three years under no other charge than that, for less than a week, the girl had not been able to maintain herself and her little boy and was therefore "a wayward girl."

That girl, after she comes out of prison, will never make a home for her little boy. Her heart is effectively broken; three years hence it will be effectively hardened. There are thousands of little cash girls working in our stores, and thousands of young girls working in telephone exchanges at night, doing work such as girls never before did in the history of the world, because there never were telephone exchanges to be served in the dead of night.

If we valued home life as we hypocritically say that we do, there would not be one of these young girls away from the family home in the dead of night serving the public, not because they serve it better than men would do, but because they are cheaper and because the interest of the stockholders and the bondholders of the corporation is of greater importance than the sacrifice of these young girls. Now every man and woman of us who passively consent, as we do, to be served by telephone exchanges which employ these young victims in the night, everyone of us who is not striving to get legislation, and protesting as only subscribers can protest, is *particeps criminis* with these employers and stockholders. If there be a telephone exchange in this country which is served at night exclusively by men over twenty-one years of age, I beg that its patrons stand up now. I have never been able to hear of one in any city.

Lest anyone should believe that the young girls in New York City are less cherished in this service than those of other cities, I know of a city not far from Buffalo, where, within a month, a factory inspector took out of a leading hotel a girl

under sixteen years of age who worked regularly until three o'clock in the morning serving a telephone exchange in that lobby, subject to the insults of passing travelers. But on her sixteenth birthday there will be no legal offense if her cruel father sends her back insisting, like the mother of the telephone girl, upon having six dollars a week.

The telephone exchange commands girls chiefly because there they are paid fifty-two weeks in the year, while the rest of our industries are so ill-organized that very few of them offer steady work throughout the year.

It may be said that I have spoken unjustly of the store where the first little girl was working. It is true that many young girls go as cash girls into stores and advance until they become clerks, and come out unhurt, so far as one can see, from that experience. It is also true that some of our boys came home sound in wind and limb from the Cuban war. Some children do not take scarlet fever, although exposed to it. Some unvaccinated people never take smallpox. But the risk is not greater which the families took who sent their sons to the Cuban war, than the risk these parents take who send their little girls into department stores. The protest cannot be made too strong, to those who believe that they value the home, against sending future mothers and makers of homes out of the schools knowing nothing of that which they should know when they shall have homes of their own, into institutions, commercial and otherwise, which, as Mr. Lee has said, "diseducate" the children and unfit them for life in the home.

It is not only the earnings which the future mothers bring into the homes that are earned at a frightful social price. The widows of working men, cleaning the filthy floors of railway stations, and hotels, and stores, and offices on their knees, after inhaling first the dust from the dry broom—is there any greater exposure to tuberculosis conceivable than that of the weary mother of little children doing such work at night? A friend of mine has conceived the monstrous idea of having a night nursery to which women so employed might send their children. And this idea was seriously described in so modern a publication as Charities and the Commons (before it changed its name) without a word of editorial denunciation. The moth-

ers of young children cannot be sent away from their homes to do such work without the gravest social injury, any more than daughters can be sent away so young and untrained as they are sent in this country today. The proper place for a workingman's widow who has young children is in her home taking care of those children, unless she is a bad woman or a drunkard, or so ill that her proximity is a menace to the health of her children. But assuming that the mother is bad or ill, there is nothing gained by sending the children away for a few hours a day to a nursery. If she is infectious she would infect the children in their close sleeping quarters.

There is no subject concerning which we are more foolish than this of the wages of women in their homes, this idea of establishing institutions to take little children away from good mothers during their working hours, insisting that widowed mothers shall perform the tasks of fathers while some hired person pretends to be mother to their little ones.

There are conditions under which the day nursery is acceptable. For instance, where the mother is temporarily in the hospital for treatment from which her convalescence may be reasonably prompt; or, if there is illness in a home and the mother ought to be relieved temporarily of the care of the children. But when Americans boast of a national, or state, or city society of day nurseries (instead of humbly apologizing that we need more than one in Greater New York) we show how little we value the presence of the mother in her home. The day nursery which encourages the mother to go out to work, leaving the larger children to spend their day on the street and to buy penny lunches, is an argument for school luncheons for the larger children. No money earned in the United States costs so dear, dollar for dollar, as the money earned by the mothers of young children.

When we permit mothers to work in the homes industrially, on a large scale, as is the case in New York, we have the degradation of the home by industry, and the mother distracted from the care of the children through the invasion of the home. If we really thought about the family and the home as we say we do, we should have none of that work today.

DISCUSSION

Mr. Frank B. Sanborn of Massachusetts—It is suggested to me by these accumulating evils in cities, and the organizations that are created to cure those evils, to ask the fundamental question—why is it that every country in the world that claims to be civilized is suffering from this evil of the overgrowth of cities? The urban populations in this country and every other country I have visited are fast increasing at the expense of the rural district population. Great cities are essential to civilization; but it is not essential to civilization that there should be a city of five million inhabitants like London, in a small country like England, or a city of four millions like New York, in this Empire State where there are so many square miles of vacant land. One reason why business gravitates to New York—and I presume the same is true of London—is because great collections of money contributed by people all over the country in insurance policies, and in various forms of banking and speculation, are drawn into these cities and there employed sometimes in promoting honest industry, but sometimes also in promoting all the evils of great cities. The accumulation of great funds in our large cities is a social and political evil. Every great city in this country becomes a source of political corruption. One way to lessen this evil is to provide by legislation and by public opinion, that the money raised in one part of the country shall not be sent for investment and speculation a thousand miles away; that money raised in Texas shall be invested in Texas. I understand they have made laws in Texas to guarantee that. But the City of New York should have its great insurance funds, its banking funds, its commercial funds, reduced. Only in that way can we prevent the growth of the city evils which I have seen in the last forty years. All the remedies you can suggest in these charitable organizations will only nibble off a few edges of the evil. The accumulation of great wealth in great cities is and must be, from the nature of things, a great evil that should be abated.

THE INTEGRITY OF THE FAMILY

BY JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON, MASS.

(*Abstract.*)

The present determination of the community to do everything possible for the children has resulted in cutting down the functions of the home. The school, for instance, has taken over the provision of play and manual training, has introduced medical inspection, the school nurse, and in some instances school visitors. Now come such questions as school feeding and behind that perhaps the question of furnishing lodging also. Are all these activities accomplishing the same thing, or do

we somewhere cross a line beyond which they are doing a different thing or even undoing the thing which we started out to do?

I think that school feeding represents the crossing of such a line. You do not help the child when you impair the home. The home is the natural habitat of the human young. It is built into the spiritual nature of the child and cannot be removed without taking with it a vital part of him. It is an institution older than man and has made him. You cannot destroy this relation and leave him quite alive. The homeless child is worse maimed than the man without a country. He is a fish without water, a creature without his essential means of life.

It is not a question of the life of the child *and* the home but of his life *in* that relation. In the question of school feeding we have reached the very citadel of the home. If we do not defend this, the battle is lost. The proper course for private charity and for social improvement is not over the dead body of the home but in maintaining it. We must see that the child is fed, but continue to make the home and not the school our organ for that purpose.

COMMUNITY LIFE IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

BY PROFESSOR L. H. BAILEY, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

It is generally agreed that one of the greatest disabilities in country life is its lack of organization, both in a social and economic way. Country people are separated both because of the distances between their properties and also because they own their land and are largely confined to this sphere of activities. There is a general lack of such a social structure as would cause country people to act together unitedly and quickly on questions that concern the whole community, or on matters of public moment. This lack of social cohesion must be overcome. Of course, it cannot be overcome through any direct or simple process, but as the result of a general redirec-

tion of rural effort and the developing of a new or different point of view toward life. The needful social cohesion will come as a result of a quickened agricultural life rather than as an effect of any direct plan of propaganda. When the rural social sense is thoroughly aroused and established, we shall be in a new epoch of rural civilization.

It will be well for us to try to picture to ourselves some of the means by which social cohesion in the open country may be brought about. It is commonly, but I think erroneously, thought that community life necessarily means a living together in hamlets or villages. I conceive, on the contrary, that it is possible to develop a very effective community life whilst the persons still remain on their farms. In this day of rapid communication, transportation, and spread of intelligence, the necessity of mere physical contiguity has partly passed away.

It is the commonest feeling among superficial students of the American country life problem, that a hamlet system something like that of Europe must necessarily develop. It is well for us to bear in mind, however, that the hamlet system which exists in parts of Europe represents the results of an historical condition. It is the product of a long line of social evolution, during which time the persons who have worked the land have been peasants, and to a greater or less extent have not owned the land that they worked. It has been said that the American farmer is drifting toward peasantry. This notion has no doubt arisen from the fact that in certain places the man who works the land is driven to great extremity of poverty and he remains uneducated and undeveloped; but ignorance and poverty do not constitute peasantry. The peasanthood of the Old World is a social caste or class, and is a remnant of feudal government and of the old necessity of protection from enemies. Moreover, the present day is characterized by the rise of the people on the land; this movement is a part of the general rise of the common people (or the proletariat). If popular education, popular rights, and the general extension of means of communication signify anything, it is that we necessarily are developing away from a condition of peasantry rather than toward it, however much degradation or unsuccess there may be in certain

regions. The only close approximation to peasantry among any large class of population in the United States is with the negroes.

In contradistinction to the hamlet system of living together, I would emphasize the fundamental necessity that a first-rate, good man must live on the farm if he is to make the most of the farm. Farming by proxy or by any absentee method is just as inefficient and as disastrous in the long run as the doing of any other business by proxy; in fact, it is likely to be even more disastrous in the end because it usually results in the depletion of the fertility of the land, or in the using up of the capital stock. I hold that it is fundamentally essential that the very best kind of people live actually on the land. The business is conducted on the land. The crops are there. The livestock is there. The machinery is there. All the investment is in the place itself. If this business is to be most effective, a good man must constantly be with it and manage it. A farm is not like a store or a factory, which is shut up at night and on Sundays.

We must bear in mind also that when the land owner or the farmer lives in a town or hamlet and another man lives on his farm, a social division at once results and we have a stratification into two classes of society; and this works directly against any community of interest. It is not likely that the farmer who has retired to town and the hired man who works his farm under orders, will develop any very close relations together. This diversion of interest is well marked in many parts of the prairie states, where the great profitableness of the farms has enabled the farmer to move to town. He becomes an extraneous element injected into the town and having very little interest in its welfare, and he has taken his personality and influence out of the country. He is in a very real sense "a man without a country." The increase of his living expenses in town is likely to cause him to raise the rent on his farm, or, if the tenant works for wages, to reduce the improvements on the place to the lowest extent compatible with profit. We need above all things to develop such a rural civilization as will attract the farmer to live permanently in the country rather than to move to town when the farm has given him a competence.

I am not to be understood as saying that farmers ought never to live in town. There will always be shifting both ways be-

tween town and country. In some cases, small-area farming develops around a town; or a town grows up because the farms are small and intensively handled. In irrigation regions the whole community may be practically a hamlet or village. In parts of the eastern states, small farmers sometimes live in the village and go to the farm each day, to work it themselves. But all these are special adaptations, and do not constitute a broad agricultural system.

My position is, therefore, that we must develop our social rural community directly from the land itself and mostly by means of the resident forces that now are there. While I would not discourage the "settlement" idea for rural communities, I must nevertheless say that it is not capable of accomplishing the results that we expect of it in cities, and that it must never be thought of as taking the place of the native farming stock. I am not very hopeful of the effect to be secured by men who are direct city products going into the country to develop the farming business. Our real problem is to develop farming business from the farms and the farmers that now occupy the open country.

This being our fundamental proposition, it is then necessary to discover whether, given permanent residence on pieces of land, it is still possible to develop anything like a community sense. I do not now propose to discuss this question at any length, but merely to call your attention to a few ways in which I think the community life of the open country may be very distinctly improved.

1. The mere increase of population will necessarily bring people closer together and by that much it will tend to social solidarity.

2. The natural dividing up of large farms, which is coming both as a result of the extension of population and from the failure of certain very large estates to be profitable, will also bring country people closer together.

3. The increasing population on the land will not always result in smaller farms, however. Most of the richer and more profitable lands will gradually be divided because, with our increased knowledge and skill, persons can make a living from smaller areas. The remoter and less productive lands, together

with contiguous areas of better lands, will naturally be combined into larger farm areas because a large proportion of such lands cannot make a sufficient profit, when divided into ordinary farm areas, to satisfy a family in the twentieth century. Several farms will come together under one general ownership; and the owner will naturally gather about him a considerable population in order to work his lands. The probability is that, under thoroughly skillful single management, a given area of remote lands will sustain a larger population than they are now able to sustain under the many indifferent or incompetent ownerships. It is to be hoped that some of these amalgamated areas will develop a share-working or associative farming of a kind that is now practically unknown.

4. The inevitable and increasing necessity of co-operation and organization among country people for economic purposes will also tie the community together. All kinds of organizations which are really co-operative in spirit must tend directly to develop the community sense.

5. Local factories and industries of whatever kind tend to develop community pride and effectiveness. Creameries have had a marked effect in this way in many places, giving the community or locality a reason for existence and a pride in itself that it never had before, or at least that it had not enjoyed since the passing out of the small factories. There is much need to develop local industries in the open country, whether they are distinctly agricultural or not. This is necessary not only for the purpose of providing additional employment for country people but to direct the flow of capital into the country and to stimulate local interest of all kinds. Country communities are likely to be dead. They need to have new life injected into them; and it is not by any means essential that all of this new life should be primarily agricultural. Much has been said of late about the necessity of developing the handicrafts in the open country in the winter season with the idea of providing work for farm people during that season of the year. I do not look for any great extension of this idea in real agricultural sections, and for the following reasons: (1) Because as good agriculture develops, the farms will of themselves employ their help more continuously. Modern diversified and intensive farming brings

about this result. The present-day dairying employs men continuously. The fruit-grower needs help in winter for pruning and spraying. Live-stock men need help in feeding and caring for the animals. Modern floriculture and vegetable gardening are likely to run the year round. (2) The conditions of American country life are such that skilled handicraft has not developed amongst the rural people and we cannot expect that it will develop. Skilled artisanship of this kind is not the growth of a generation, nor is it a result of the utilization of merely a few weeks or months of time. (3) It is very doubtful whether such handicrafts as are often mentioned could compete in the markets with the goods produced by consolidated factories.

I am not arguing against the introduction of handicrafts into the open country, but wish only to call attention to what I consider to be an erorr in some of the current discussions. I am thoroughly convinced that local industries of one kind or another will develop in the open country in the next generation, and greatly to the advantage of the country itself; but they must be regular factories and able to compete with other factories if they are to succeed in a business way. Their largest results will come not in providing employment for persons who temporarily need it, but by developing a new community life in the places where they stand.

6. Local institutions of all kinds must have a powerful effect in evolving a good community sense. This is true in a superlative degree of the school, the church, the rural library, and the grange. These institutions will bring into the community the best thought of the world and will use it in the development of the people in the locality.

7. The local rural press ought to have a powerful influence in developing community action. The whole question of the country press needs to be reconsidered, particularly in view of the opportunities that are afforded by the rural deliveries of mail. In proportion as the support of the country newspaper is provided by political organizations, hack politicians, and patent medicine advertisements, will its power as a public organ be small and undeveloped.

8. The influence of the many kinds of extension teaching is bound to be marked. Reading courses, itinerant lectures, the

organizing of boys' and girls' clubs, the inspections of dairies, orchards, and other farms, the organization of such educational groups as cow-testing societies, and the like, touch the very core of the rural problem. The influence of the traveling teacher is already beginning to be felt and it will increase tremendously in the immediate future. I mean by the traveling teacher the person who goes out from the agricultural college, the experiment station, the state or national department of agriculture, or other similar institutions, to impart agricultural information, and to set the people right toward their own problems.

9. The modern extension of all kinds of communication will tie the people together even though it does not result in making them move their residence. I have reference to good highways, telephones, rural free deliveries, and the like. The automobile is already beginning to have its effect in certain rural communities, but we have yet scarcely begun to develop the type of auto-vehicle which is destined, I think, to make a very great change in country affairs. We must add to all this a thoroughly developed system of parcels post, not only that the farmer may receive mail, but that he may also have greater facilities and freedom to transact his business with the world.

10. In the end everything depends on personal initiative and leadership. It is not strange that we have lacked the kind of leadership that brings country people together, because we have not had the kind of education that produces it; and, in fact, this kind of leadership has not been so necessary in the past as it is now. The colleges of agriculture, one in every state and territory, are setting new ideals in education. A new motive in education is gradually beginning to shape itself in our public school system. All this is bound to develop a new kind of outlook on country questions, and it will produce a good many men and women who will be leaders in the country as their fellows will be leaders in the city. I think we little realize today what the effect will be in twenty-five years of the young men and women that the colleges of agriculture are sending into the country districts in these days.

SOCIAL BETTERMENT IN THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS

BY JOHN C. CAMPBELL, RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION, DEMOREST, GA.

My subject is one that presents difficulties at the outset. Conditions in the Southern Appalachian region are little known, and the people have suffered much from unqualified generalization. Those who are interested in them and are laboring zealously for them, speaking necessarily from a limited or local viewpoint, and under the stress of money raising to carry on special work, have unconsciously added to the misinformation and misunderstanding regarding this people. Many of us, interested in our own work, plead so earnestly for the needs of our own fields that we leave the impression upon the minds of our auditors that the conditions which we depict are general conditions.

Not only has the mountaineer been injured by his friends, but he has also been misrepresented by some writers of fiction, and, consequently, he is to many people merely a picturesque type in literature and a desperate character of newspaper headlines, who spends his days in feudal strife and his nights in illicit distilling of whisky. Those who do not regard him as a pathetic object of missionary appeal, or a fire eating desperado, call him "the mountain white," a term synonymous in their minds with "poor white trash;" and certain of the lowlanders of the South join in spirit with these Northern detractors when they apply to him the half humorous and half contemptuous term of "hill billy."

We cannot generalize. The mountain region of the Southern Appalachians includes in places wide and fertile valleys and other long trough-like valleys, occupied by people able to supply their own needs. There are also in the more remote sections, little villages and groups well able to take care of themselves; and in some sections there are people who have had advantages equal to those who live in more urban sections. Often these groups are close together in neighborhoods.

With this foreword, and remembering that mountain conditions are constantly changing for the better or for the worse, we may speak, realizing that we may be misunderstood by

some of our auditors, who may fail to keep in mind that we are speaking of the needy groups and of their environment.

We speak, then, of the needy groups, and there are many such. Imagine an intensified rural section, with poor roads, poor schools, with teachers to match (excepting, of course, many of the church schools and some of the public schools), with comparatively few well-trained physicians and ministers—a people developed to the highest point of individualism, with practically no community spirit, with forests disappearing; land being washed away in consequence, and unwise methods of farming; with little, if any, farm stock of high grade; with large families; with homes lacking much that seems to be essential. What can be done?

You and I decided some years ago that education was the "cure-all," and we recall with what joy and elation we left the railroad, as co-workers, and traveled far up into the mountains to do this people good.

It was early May. The distant hills were clothed in purple. In the foreground were the rich green of cedar and of pine, interspersed with the variant green of the oaks. The iris and the violet contended in friendly rivalry for possession of the roadside. The bees hummed busily among the azalea, and from the topmost branch of the blossoming dogwood a mocking-bird was singing. Here and there a thrush or cat-bird sought to outdo him in melody, and in the lapses of their song were borne to our ears the woodland sounds of running brooks and whispering leaves.

Surely we had come into a goodly land! How we were thrilled with its beauty and with the self-satisfaction of a worthy mission! But we recall now how we were rudely awakened from the spell that the mountains had cast upon us by the plaintive voice of a woman, who had slipped to the side of our carriage to ask our driver to exchange the few eggs that she brought for coffee and snuff. She was dressed in clinging calico, which served but to accentuate her angular figure. Her face, beneath the shadow of her sun-bonnet, was sallow and worn, and her eyes were tired. We drove on and Nature failed to reassert her charms, for there was ever be-

fore our vision that lone figure by the roadside, so out of keeping with the beauty of the scene.

But education would surely correct all the needs that are thus suggested to us, and we open our school with enthusiasm. As the weeks go by, we find we have won the confidence of the community, and our advice is followed. We have proved to the fathers and mothers that a knowledge of grammar is of use to their boys, and that arithmetic and physiology will at least do no harm to their girls, and for the first year we take a certain satisfaction in the number who spell correctly and who can read with some expression. Later our satisfaction becomes profound when we have successfully carried through the elementary and high school grades a few of the most promising. And here at last are two who go to their state university, and there one who has entered Harvard, and another who supported himself at Yale.

We have noted, however, that our girls were irregular in their attendance—"Mammy" is a little ill and "Sis" must stay at home, or corn needs to be planted or the fodder pulled. It is the boy of the family who has the chance, if the teacher has had success in keeping alive the educational consciousness in the father.

One day that troublesome little question which we try to hold down by the weight of our satisfaction demands an answer, as Amanda, voicing the doubt of many of her sisters in the mountains, comes to our desk and says, with tears in her eyes: "I am going to leave school. What is the use of educating me—I am only a girl, one of many in the family? We live in a one-room cabin. You have taken me and lifted me above the level of my family. You have given me a glimpse of better things—things that cannot be realized in my surroundings. The best boys of the community who have accepted what you have taught them have gone elsewhere, and I am left to become a burden on my parents, dissatisfied with my home, or to marry a boy above whom you have lifted me. You would have done better to have left me in my ignorance."

Were we doing what needed to be done—creating discontent, without a training which could work the cure within the community? How much had we lightened the darkness of

this community by stealing from it the few lights that were needed and setting them where they were not needed, and leaving in the community a few tapers to burn themselves out? Under the impelling logic of this girl's plaint, we persuade those in charge that something more ought to be done to prepare for the life that must be lived in the community, and we perhaps secure a domestic science teacher, who instructs our girls that "Pillsbury's best brand of wheat flour and fresh compressed yeast every day are absolutely necessary for successful housekeeping," and she distributes to the women in the community who cannot read, a pretty magazine. "The Kitchen Queen," to teach them how to make macaroons and Charlotte Russe.

There are many efforts such as ours, for we have all been caught in a system inherited from other times and other sections somewhat different. But if the test of education is in its adaptation to life, it is the "cure-all," not only for intensified rural conditions, but for intensified urban conditions. With this truth before us, made operative by men and women of largeness of vision, with hearts filled with the essence of religion—social love—men and women willing to spend and be spent, who come to learn as well as to teach, there is great promise of betterment.

The life that the mountaineer must live is a rural life, and his education should be adapted to meet the needs of that rural life. A number will always seek the larger centers, but our rural schools in the mountains and elsewhere must teach the youth to develop the resources of their own environment, and to find within that environment the proper response to legitimate needs and desires.

The question naturally arises at this point as to whether there are enough material resources in the mountain section to supply the necessities of living for an increasing population, if these resources are properly developed? So far, speaking generally, the resources of the mountains have been exploited by those from other sections, and the mountain people have had little return.

This question as to the resources of the mountains is one that cannot be answered offhand. A careful inquiry, directed

to government and state experts, warrants the statement that there are large sections in the mountains where life could be made more livable by development of what is there and what may be raised there. The finding out of what is in the neighborhood and its proper development is a part of the scheme of education that is needed.

Another great need is a vigorous campaign for better health conditions. Tuberculosis is a rival of typhoid, and in certain large sections claims more yearly victims than typhoid, which is commonly regarded as the mountain scourge.

Intimately connected with the question of health is that of dietetics. The common foods of the mountains, lacking perhaps in some of the elements regarded as necessary in a normal diet, do not produce the full effect that might be expected from the food values they contain. Even where the food values are not affected by the preparation, the method of cooking is such as to produce in the individuals an enfeebled condition which prohibits a complete assimilation of the food.

Social life, as it is generally understood, is, from one cause and another, lacking almost entirely.

We have no cut and dried method for betterment, but it would seem wise to avail ourselves of the forces already working for betterment; to test them to the full by adjustment, adaptation and co-operation. As has been stated before, the schools have been the strongest influence for betterment, and when we say schools, we mean the church and independent schools. The question that presents itself now is as to whether the time has not come for withdrawing these schools and leaving education to the public schools. There is a difference of opinion here, but it seems to us that those who really understand the mountain field will be loth to say that the day of the church and independent school is over. They should, however, be preparing the way for the public school, and this would seem to us to be done best through an adaptation of their activities for development of material resources, and, socially, for the development of a community spirit, so that eventually the needs which called them into existence may disappear through communities aroused to their social obligations, and enabled, through increased property holdings, to

maintain, on the basis of local taxation, the public schools which they have come to feel are needed. This process, of course, will mean that eventually many of the church schools will lose their lives by having gained the object which called them into existence.

We have no fixed educational method as a panacea for the material health and social needs of the mountains. A purpose in the minds and hearts of trained men and women co-operating with one another, and with betterment forces without the mountain field, will develop the method.

As a beginning, we suggest the following: An initial, and perhaps a continuous co-operative effort from without, to place in the best managed and most broad spirited of these schools, and in the good public schools, men trained for the development of rural life and who love rural life; who should be the friends of the neighborhood perhaps more than teachers in the school; who should study the needs of the neighborhood; be scientific enough to know what can best be raised and how to raise it; ready also to organize the farmers and co-operate with them in finding the best market. We would have, also, instruction in common carpentry, planning of homes, etc., but all on such a level as to create hope rather than discouragement. We would have boys trained to make the best of the material that could be found in the environment in which they are to live and with the tools that they themselves are able to own. We would have courses in domestic science and household economy adapted to the existing conditions. We would have home nursing, by nurses trained to make the best of whatever comes to hand.

Nurses of this stamp, such domestic science teachers and preachers and teachers of rural life, will do much for betterment. If the best thing under normal conditions cannot be done, they will be willing to teach the best under abnormal conditions. A number of schools with such teachers linked together for a common effort, and with some means to bring to them the experience of other groups, and to connect them with outside forces, would eventually meet many of the crying needs.

It may seem to some that the greatest thing of all—the spiritual need—has been disregarded. The means that have been suggested, in their development, will tend to produce that social love which is the essence of all true religion.

It will be found, we are sure, that the churches in the mountains will co-operate, when it is seen that these efforts are, in fact, practical, modern ways of the Great Teacher, who commanded His disciples to heal the sick, feed the hungry, clothe the naked, and to open the eyes of the blind.

The training that we advocate will, we believe, dignify labor and spiritualize it. The system we have followed so long in the past has caused young men to feel that a lawyer, a minister, a physician, a teacher—professional men—are higher types of manhood than he whose brain directs his hand in the common tasks of life. It is little wonder that so many seek urban life, when all our training tends to send them there by embellishing urban life and disregarding the beauties of rural life.

Let us ask once more, has the time not come for us to assert that the true test of education is adaptation to life? Man cannot live by bread alone, but He who uttered those words taught us, by example, to feed the multitude as well as to preach to them. We do not plead for mere utilitarian training, nor do we seek to minimize the benefit of cultural training; but may we not, in this intensified rural section, in which our best schools have been so inadequate, try the experiment that may be too costly to begin elsewhere, because of the grip of custom—the experiment of schools adapted to the needs of their environment, and to prove that there are cultural and spiritual values in finding what one's environment can best produce, and in producing it, gain not only subsistence but life itself?

Let one who has been a worker for many years in the mountain section of the South bespeak your sympathetic imagination, as you endeavor to get some view of the great task of social betterment in this highland region. May he go further, and not be misunderstood in so doing, to ask your sympathetic imagination as you view all southern questions? We of the North have been wont to regard the South as

provincial, unmindful of the fact that there is a western provincialism and an eastern provincialism as well. There are real questions to be solved in the South, questions that are national in their bearing, and need to be looked at in the large.

This question of the mountain dwellers is a national question. You have it in your New England hills, with less hope of solution it is sometimes felt, and although it is a larger question in the South, it is, after all, only a question of intensified rural conditions. If you cannot altogether understand the South, may we not hope for your patience and for your sympathy? Perhaps it is easy for you to respond in sympathy for the mountaineer; easy, too, for many of you to feel sympathy for the negro; but may we ask that you be not lacking in sympathy for the intelligent South, mistaken as she may be at times? Bound though she be, on one hand by the ignorant white, and on the other hand by the ignorant black, she nevertheless is heroically breaking from the charm of a romantic past and struggling to the light of a new and brighter day.

She needs you and you need her, if our national life, in its entirety, is to be strong.

THE CASE WORK PLANE

(Or the Application of the C. O. S. Case Method to Families Above the Poverty Line.)

BY MRS. MARY K. SIMKHOVITCH, HEAD RESIDENT GREENWICH HOUSE, NEW YORK CITY

The two most distinctive features of modern charitable work are the emphasis on preventative effort and the careful consideration of what is involved in the understanding of the standard of living.

Preventative work has been considered so largely from the social point of view that the possibilities of its development in what has been called "case work," i. e., individual effort, have been relatively neglected.

The essential in case work is the attempt to raise the standard of living of the family in the given instance, or to keep the standard from still further falling. The recent studies of Mrs. More and of Mr. Chapin, as well as the common sense of the entire community, reinforced by general experience, indicate that the wage received by the head of the family is the most important element in the standard of living. The wage in its turn is dependent upon the skill of the worker; dependent upon his industrial training; upon the strength of the worker; dependent upon proper housing, adequate nourishment and clothing, freedom from overwork, personal hygiene and sufficient recreation; and, third, upon the worker's combination with other workers to obtain as high a wage as is obtainable in the given occupation. The standard of living is lowered, among other causes, by the losses occasioned by death, accident, illness and old age, for which society has not yet worked out an adequate insurance scheme by which anxiety can be lessened or overcome, and by unemployment, which in times of moderate prosperity is largely a question of distribution of labor and which in periods of depression becomes an acute economic problem, the practical solution of which can hardly be claimed by the most audacious.

The typical C. O. S. "cases" are cases where the family standard has been lowered by personal defects, the lowering of the wage, or by the illness, accident, old age or death of the principal wage-earner. The "cases," therefore, yield only on treatment which has a wide implication. It is individual work but dealing with social causes. They are cases where a temporary or a permanent dependence exists—where the standard has broken down at some point.

We may, then, say that the charitable case plane is that of a standard minus. The work of the agent, then, becomes the raising of the family to normal. But if the field of case work is the standard of living, with the object of not only keeping the standard from falling but also of raising it; in other words, if case or family-care work is to co-operate in the social aim of creating a dynamic standard constantly rising, is not the plane of dependence chosen for case work unfortunate from the point of view of getting results? If an ounce of prevention is worth

a pound of cure, why does not this hold true in the field of case work as it does in the whole social field? If it be said in reply that the charitable societies recognize this fully by their modern emphasis upon preventative health measures, such as the campaign for proper housing and for the extinction of tuberculosis, in the aroused interest in industrial education, in adequate recreation, in social legislation designed to abolish child labor, overwork for women, and in proper provision for the sufferers from industrial accident; it is the object of this paper to point out that as a matter of fact we do not know the extent to which preventative work can be carried on in connection with "case work"; for among the charitable societies case work has been carried on in only one plane, and that the least designed to give any results, while the case work in higher economic planes carried on by other than charitable societies, while admirable from point of view of motive, and no doubt often effective, is so feebly organized and so without adequate record that no deductions are possible. We are therefore completely in the dark as to the possible results of case work as an important element in the raising of the standard of living, and we shall never have any reliable statement to make in this field until adequate experimentation, properly systematized, is made in another economic plane from that which is at present operated in by the charitable societies. Case work in its important sense cannot be judged, for we know nothing about it.

We can guess at it. We can say that the churches "look after their families," as we call it; we can say that the settlements "know their neighbors"; but the records of these groups do not exist in any comparable form, nor can we make any careful or reliable deductions from them. That the settlements and churches are helpful we know, but how much and where and how they could be more helpful in this line of their work we don't know, for we have no criterion and no record.

We have then an anomalous state of affairs—we have the charitable societies doing case work in the least promising field, and we have churches and settlements doing case work in the economic planes where, if anywhere, such case work ought to be most fruitful, where the standard of living can be raised, where it can be made standard plus, rather than as in the case

of the charitable societies, where it must be pulled up from standard minus to normal. We have, therefore, a desirable record system which shows the facts and the results in the least important plane, and in the important planes we have no records of any value.

This paper presents a plea for scientific registration of the case work carried on in the higher economic planes. We certainly shall not know of how great or how small value such case work is and might be, in the attempt to create or assist a dynamic standard, without such registration.

I believe this paper will interest nobody, for I think the modern emphasis is so strongly on preventative work of a social character that case work is secretly if not openly despised. That is one of the reasons why district and family work are conducted with less interest and less capacity than the social preventative work. The general feeling is that case work is a small affair, unimportant, a necessary evil, a depressing piece of business, a practically hopeless job. Everyone's attention is turned the other way. If it weren't for the fact that salaries are on the whole rising, I believe we shouldn't find any of the younger people entering that field! The fact is that the C. O. S. case work plane is depressing, for it has in it very little of the possibility of the standard plus work which is so stimulating to the settlement resident. Why is it that on the whole the settlement residents are such a hopeful group? Is it because they see great social changes taking place that are bound to make a new world for us to live in? Yes, partly, but *also* because they see on every hand that individual rise in the standard of living which indicates that we are still in a progressive economic period. With all the terrible indications of appalling poverty that surround them the settlements are so situated that they have an exceptional opportunity to observe the growth and development of the workingman to comfort and freedom from serious economic pressure. This opportunity comes to the settlements from their intimate acquaintance with normal, industrial, neighborhood families. I regard this knowledge as the most precious possession of the settlements and I believe it gives them a realistic point of view from which it is impossible to stampede most of them. And I regard it as

the chiefest misfortune of the settlements that they are unable to reinforce their convictions by any evidence that is otherwise than fragmentary and impressionistic in character.

For a quarter of a century the most valuable and precious knowledge of conditions among working people has come into the settlements of our great cities, only to trickle away. This knowledge has been of great indirect value. It has given a point of view to those possessing it that has in turn reacted on all the associations with which the settlements are intimately associated; but it has never been registered in any way that can be measured. You may say "it never could be and it isn't desirable that it should be," but I claim that we don't know what its value would be until we try it. A serious attempt at such record should include not only what little work settlements or churches may have themselves done in a constructive way toward raising the standard, but also should indicate what friends, relatives and neighbors, lodges and unions and social clubs have done to raise the standard. This group, though recognized by the charitable worker among dependent families, will be even more conspicuous in the higher economic planes. The union organizer, the president of the local social club, the political friend, the friendly offerer of a loan to help a man take a step he would otherwise hesitate to take, the teacher, and all those local powers whose mental and fraternal stimulus count so vastly in the industrial fortunes of their neighbors, must all be taken in account. These obscure elements in the rise of the standard deserve serious attention. The social psychologist's place is here. And nowhere could he make such good use of his time as in drawing inferences from those vast records he could have had but which are unavailable because these organizations have never felt the need of them, or have been too poor to keep them, or have not seen their real importance to a large understanding of our social dynamics. I do not doubt that many will think, however, that adequate records of attempts to raise the standard of living by means of case work would not give an ample enough return for the labor involved to warrant their installation. Such a doubter will probably be one who pins all his faith on social changes. To him I would like to whisper my own preconceived opinion,

which is that case work in these higher economic planes will turn out largely, when analyzed, to be the attempt to render social opportunities *available;* i. e., to adjust the individual to these social possibilities, to point them out, to bring them within his reach, to render them desirable to him, to give him a taste for them, to inspire a desire as well as to offer an opportunity.

After even greater social changes shall have taken place than those that we have witnessed, there will still be room for that neighborly relation which will indicate direction for growth and for an ever expansive standard of life. And even where case work fails to have shown constructive aid, it may prove to be equally or more valuable as a test of the efficiency of existing social agencies and their actual connection with life.

In any case is it not strange that this great field of knowledge and of work should have escaped the investigator so long? The flippant or the oppressed will say "lucky for them." For the fear of investigation is widespread. I encountered it when I proposed to a charitable society, with what it seemed to me was an admirable generosity, that they should place an agent at Greenwich House to do case work in our plane, offering her an opportunity to meet our neighbors and to use our records, scanty possibly, but not wholly despicable, and offering further the co-operation of all our resident staff—all of whom are constantly visiting in the neighborhood. The society refused our offer on grounds that interested me, and as they are general in character and typical of the objections that would naturally arise, I shall run the risk of boring you still further with a recital of these objections in detail.

The first objection registered was that respectable, economically independent families would object to being investigated. I ran over in my mind the times I had been investigated—there's always the census—then there was a marriage license, and who's who, and the politely worded demands of the association of collegiate alumnae to know my age, my income, my expenditure, and the number of my children, and there's the board of health man who came to fumigate after we'd had diphtheria, and there's the college class secretary who writes all about one's past and how very past it is. Now I have never flown into a passion with these reasonable requests

and have endeavored as far as I have had time, to comply with their socially justifiable curiosity. And yet there is a sort of person whom, if he asks one when one expects to leave town, one regards as impertinent and the request as monstrous. He has the art of being personally offensive. He intrenches on one's personality, no matter how innocent be his inquiry. Investigations, if recognized as socially useful, do not offend. The art of investigation is, therefore, so to present inquiry that it is freed from the personal and hence the impertinent, and takes on a social and a useful character. The investigated then becomes a co-operator in a common work and is filled with pride rather than with animosity. But my objector to careful inquiry in the higher ceonomic plane than that of dependence, occupied as it seemed to me a still more defenseless position than that of one who is opposed to investigations per se. The objection lay rather in the implication that the dependent must put up with it for their own good, whereas the better off should be shielded from intrusion!

The philosophy of this position seems too undemocratic to demand further mention. Why should the poor and dependent have to suffer from intrusion? Either investigation is intrusive or it is not. If it is no class should be subject to it, and if it is not intrusive then no class need fear it or object to it. Delicacy, good taste and respect are just as appropriate for one class or person as another. The good investigator knows no class manners.

The second objection to undertaking the proposed work was that already the churches, and especially the settlements, are doing this work, hence that it is unnecessary. The feebleness of this objection becomes apparent at once when one considers that both the quantity and quality of this work is unknown and immeasurable.

The third objection was that the charitable society whose co-operation our settlement sought saw no reason for the experiment being made at our House rather than elsewhere! Neither did we. The offer came from us, but we should have been equally pleased to see the plan tried elsewhere.

The fourth objection was that from the point of view of administration there might be difficulties; to whom would this

new sort of district agent be responsible? This objection has something reasonable in it, and in fact there does not seem to be any valid reason why such experimentation should not take place independently, it may be with better results. The suggestion of co-operation was made simply on the ground that it was a new and higher form of case work that fitted into the modern preventative program of the enlightened charitable societies. If social preventative work can be appropriately engaged in by charitable societies, why not individual preventative work also?

A last objection made to the plan, in this case not by the charitable society whose co-operation was asked, was that it would involve an entirely new method of approach to the district. For whereas now the charity worker receives requests for aid from the dependent, the case worker on the higher plane goes out to the district and meets it in a normal way where the relation of helper and helped is often mutual and where in any case it is not the obvious thing. There are many who still feel that it is a good thing that people should dread to go to a charity office, public or private, who believe such dread is wholesome and deters from poverty and makes for thrift. But how contradictory is this idea to that of "not alms but a friend." Friendship is of the very essence of mutual give and take. The element of dread, of fear, of unwillingness to receive help, is eliminated from the idea of friendship. Though no one can doubt that the charity agent is often the most friendly of persons, the very fact that she is sought instead of seeking, that she is recognized as a possible source of help rather than that of ordinary neighbor, works against her offer of friendliness. There is nothing degrading about receiving help from a friend. And where a really friendly relation exists between agent and the individual helped, the unwillingness to go to the office consists solely in the fact that one may be recognized and that it may get bruited about that one is in need—that is, there is no shame in being helped but considerable shame in having that help known.

The pride of social economic status is quite a different thing from personal pride. From my friend I will take anything, hoping to be able to do him the same good turn some

day, but I do not want the neighbors to see I am taking help from any one whom they don't recognize as my friend. When one hears it said, "It is hard for me to come to this," what is meant is not that it is hard to receive help from a friend, but that it is hard for me to fall into the social status of dependency by which I lose caste. This may all be very illogical. If one has done the best one can, why not be dependent gracefully and painlessly? If I have done the best I can, is not the almshouse the home I, with my fellow-citizens, have prepared for myself? Why not occupy it without a twinge? The philosopher may do so—but the majority will continue to have regrets.

If the charity agent instead of waiting for applicants, goes out to the district with his trained service at the command of the district, he will meet people of every plane. His work then becomes not a work with a class or a group, as is the case at present, but a neighborhood work. The only, but very serious, drawback of this desirable relationship is its unwieldiness. Cases of distress have to be attended to at once and the number of cases possible to handle is limited. A division of effort seems thus to be desirable and on the whole the dependent group would best be served by the charity agent and the higher economic groups by the settlement. And yet the dangers of the charity district work must be avoided if possible. What are these dangers? They are: (1) The frequent adoption of the indefensible theory that a wholesome fear of dependence should be accentuated, and that hence the dependent should seek the charitable society rather than the reverse. (2) Constant work among the dependent gives a distorted view of the real nature, attainments and hopes of the working class as a whole, which reacts upon the agent unfavorably, producing physical and mental exhaustion.

How is this situation to be met? Not, I believe, by having settlement and charitable work combined, but by bringing about a close co-operation in the following way: Wherever possible for the charity agent to live in a local settlement, where it will be possible to join in a normal neighborly relation and where she can weed out the dependent cases turned over to her by the settlement. The settlement on the other hand should keep a complete record of all its work in other economic

groups. Often these groups will meet, some on the downward, some on the up grade. In either case an exchange of record would be desirable. Where the higher group records are economically satisfactory and are on the up-grade, they would be of course inviolate from publicity of any sort and would not be open to inspection by any charitable society unless anonymously presented for some scientific purpose justifying inspection. How would such co-operation be differentiated from old-fashioned "friendly visiting" where the settlement resident takes up a family after the "case" has been "closed"? There would be a common point of view and the work would be more effective, for the charity agent would think of the neighborhood as a whole and the settlement worker would be more efficient as to records.

To repeat, why is it not then desirable that the charity worker should build up about the district office a real neighborhood center, or why is it not desirable on the other hand for the settlement to be the center from which charitable work emanates? The disadvantages attaching to each of these schemes are in the first case that the spirit of the district office, where problems of dependence are foremost, would be apt to dominate (as all fundamental thoughts do dominate) the rest of the neighborhood work undertaken, and in the second case a large amount of work undertaken by the settlements for dependents would tend to drive away those who are higher up in the economic scale from the settlement's social life.

However it be worked out, these two things nevertheless seem clear; that the charity worker must by some means know the neighborhood, as a whole, first, and then fit into that understanding her care of dependents; and second, that the same careful record of work that charitable societies use in their care of dependents must be made in the settlements, churches and other societies that are endeavoring to effect a higher standard of living among families already above the poverty line.

The work of the home and school visitors is an excellent example of just such work. These visitors who in New York are a part of the Public Education Association and who work in close connection with the schools, the settlements and the homes

of the school children, are constantly in touch with families who most frequently are not very poor, or who, at any rate, are not known to the charitable societies as needing aid. But in some way these families do need aid. Here a child needs to be taken to a dental clinic; there a wild boy is provided with suitable recreation that reclaims him for work; here a daughter is given an advantageous opportunity to change her occupation. This work helps to bring up the tone of the entire family. It helps indirectly to increase the family's earnings. It is, looked at from one point of view, an ethical work, from another an economic, from both a social work of importance. The moment the home and school visitors find their work so pressing that they confine themselves to cases of obvious economic dependence, their work will degenerate and narrow. The schools should be furnished with enough visitors so that one economic plane will not be neglected for another.

The tendency to center attention on the most distressing or obvious needs, is one that churches, settlements, home and school visitors and similar workers among the normal working class should combat. For the distinctive value of work on these higher planes is that the advantage gained in the struggle with life by successful families and groups should be kept and furthered and be held from breakdown. True, the real safeguards of this group are of a larger sort—they are the laws passed in their behalf, more adequate housing, more healthful surroundings in industry, higher wages through organization and greater skill. But the individual help given by these organizations closely animated with the life of the normal working class, is presumably considerable. This individual work is so to speak social adjusting work. The value of this social adjusting work—this rendering the larger social opportunities available and attractive—is unknown because unmeasured. Let the work of one settlement in this particular field be properly recorded, classified and presented, and we shall have something to go by.

The record card for this plane will differ a bit from that of dependent families. I would not venture to forecast the exact wording of any such possible schedule. But it should contain among other things a complete record of the health of

each individual in the family, the education of the children at home, in school, on the street and in supplementary ways, the vocation for which the children are suited, the use of such facilities as the parks, the museums, the libraries, the registration of all that means development of the sense of association, that most important modern sense without which economic progress is impossible—I mean the prompt keeping of appointments, the keeping one's word, the taking one's share of responsibility in any enterprise, serious or recreational, the art of getting on with all kinds of people and making the best of them—all these are in the end economic assets and deserve careful observation and registration and imply work of a subtle kind with an understanding of personal and social psychology. Every mother meets these questions, every teacher meets them, and every settlement meets them. The mother does not have to register her success or failure, though the part her children play in the world is its own indication. The teachers and especially their agents the home and school visitors, do register this work. But the churches and the settlements do not. Yet the settlements are incorporated bodies and owe an accounting of their services to the state. It is nonsense to say that work cannot be measured, though of course all such work is exceedingly difficult to measure.

The recent report of the British Poor Law Commission has interested us all greatly. And especially congenial is that point of view brought out by the minority, in their emphasis upon the consideration of the need of the individual, irrespective of the destitution of the family as a whole. If a child is sick, the report practically implies, make him well; that's the whole of it. This refreshing point of view is not new to us in America.

It is indeed from this point of view that raising the standard of living, especially in the higher planes, is ordinarily viewed. Push ahead each member of the family into health, power, capacity, opportunity. The pushing of the higher groups ahead will prevent, to a slight degree at any rate, the formation of a dependent class. We are all saying, why not prevent the formation of a dependent class? Let us add that this element in the abolition of poverty, this particular form of

preventative work we have never measured and hence cannot properly value.

But let us, nevertheless, confess our personal doubts. For one I believe that this form of preventative work does not compare in breadth and power with the larger social kinds of preventative effort. Yet limited as it is, I must admit that it seems to me a field more worth careful record and thorough work than the plane of case work which today is occupied by the charitable societies. It is a neglected field of inquiry, a treasure house of social economic information, an unparalleled opportunity to test the efficiency of social agencies for raising the standard of living.

All economic case work will tend to diminish in quantity as social efforts become more effective and as they penetrate further and further into the home life of the community, and a careful study of case work, especially in the higher plane, will perhaps be most valuable at just this point as an exact indication of where the social agencies fail to clinch their work. We do not need more case work in the future, but less—but until this clinching work is socially satisfactory and is included as an essential part of social preventative effort, the individual clincher will need to keep at his post.

Twofold, then, would be the object of a scientific registration of non-dependent case work. First, to indicate the social adjustments able to be effected by individual means, and second, to indicate where social effort, supposed to be already effective, is in reality defective. We may venture to hope that the way may be found to take up this matter practically.

HOW CASUAL WORK UNDERMINES FAMILY AND NEIGHBORHOOD LIFE

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(*Abstract.*)

This paper is not the result of an economist's or a sociologist's investigation, but is simply the observations of a neighbor whose fourteen years' residence in the community back of the stockyards gives her the right to tell the story of the struggle of the workers who prepare the meat food for the world's market, and how the struggle affects the women and children and undermines the family and neighborhood life.

In this community the packing house industry dominates the life of the people. Every morning of the year you may see from three to five thousand men and women in front of the timekeepers' offices of the five great packing firms, waiting for a job. It is this waiting mass of surplus labor that decides the economic existence of the unskilled workers of the packing industry; it is this oversupply that decides whether men and women may have a living wage or not. The health, morals and very existence of the people depend largely upon whether they have a job, whether work is slack or steady. And every day newcomers arrive.

The packing industry is not unlike every large business of today in its need of surplus labor. Work is so specialized and the industry so organized that a man must be in every place or the machine can not go on; but three to five thousand waiting men and women are more than is needed at any time and must become a menace to the social welfare of any community.

Hanging before the eyes of this waiting mass, in front of the timekeeper's office is a blackboard on which is written the number of cattle and hogs that are to be killed on that day. If the number runs into many thousands it may mean work for numbers of the casuals. To the newly-arrived immigrant the message on the blackboard is another one of the many perplexities of the new land. Patient, benumbed, they stand waiting, as dogs for a bone, until the policeman with his club drives

right and left and they understand by this brutal language that there is no work and they must disperse.

A struggle is going on in every great industry employing large numbers of unskilled workers, between the American standard—or, as it is termed by the people, a "decent American" standard—and the peasant standard of living. The strike of 1904 was to uphold that decent American standard, because, as they said, a man can't bring up a family in a decent American way on fifteen cents an hour, with an average of forty hours a week. This argument was repeated over and over on the street corner, in the saloon, on the platform, and in print. It was said in Polish, Bohemian, Lithuanian, Slavish, German and French-Canadian, by black and white, by men, women and even children.

It is not hard for the public to understand great, vested interests and property rights, but the laborer's vested interest is so confused in the mind of the average person that the worker's welfare, as a citizen and a social being, is almost lost sight of, and it takes perhaps a great strike, that interferes with one's tenderloin beefsteak or roast of lamb, to arrest the attention of the American public to the fact that even the butcher has also an important interest. It is a great human one; it holds the wife and children, their education, their food, their clothing, their shelter, as of greater importance than anything else. This interest is fundamental and must be understood to be so by the American public if we are to develop our democracy on sane lines and prevent the future citizens from deterioration. A two months' struggle for a few more cents an hour seems all out of proportion and foolish to one who does not know its meaning. But when one finds a neighborhood where two and one-half cents an hour added to the wages means just enough to keep the family on the right side of the poverty line, then two and one-half cents becomes of tremendous importance. This is the struggle of the average family in the neighborhood back of the yards, a struggle to keep the life up to their conception of a decent American living. The intelligent foreigner, who has been a few years in the community, holds this standard and struggles for it patiently. Especially the German, the Irish, and the Bohemian agree with

the American-born, that twenty cents an hour is the lowest wage a self-respecting man will take. But in the waiting crowd at the stockyards the newly arrived men, and more and more women, are willing to take even ten cents an hour and work under any conditions, because, since 1904, there has been no organization to keep wages up and to protect the unskilled worker.

A decent American life may be to us a mere phrase, but to those who use it all the time it has a vital meaning. The standard varies somewhat with different people of different nationalities, but we find that, in all, this common conception exists, that an American standard of home for a family means privacy, enough to eat, ability to dress like other people, and, if possible, to own one's own place and give the children a better education and a better chance than the parents had. The struggle at present in our neighborhood is between this standard and the standard of the peasants from Russia, Austria and Hungary, who, for the past ten years, have been coming into the stockyards district in such large numbers.

The packing industry is only about thirty-five years old. In the earlier times the Irish and German workers lived in their own little cottages, which they were buying on monthly payments. It was then one family to a house. "Bubbly Creek," on the northern boundary of the stockyards, had not then its unsavory reputation, and on the open spaces nearby grew the prairie flowers instead of rank weeds, which thrive alone now. When the Russian and Austrian Slavs came in large numbers and the pressure in the yards became greater, the Irish and Germans moved to the prairie, where a new cottage home was bought and the old one sold to the aliens, the Poles or Lithuanians. And soon the same roof covered three, four, or five families, with a few boarders besides.

One of the most trying sights that the settlement resident has to meet, is to see the sturdy little children, born of peasant parents, beginning at the age of nine and ten to show the influence of the bad conditions, the color going out of their cheeks, their complexions becoming sallow and their eyes weary. The medical inspector of one of the best public schools in the neighborhood, a school of eleven hundred children, found

two hundred and eight below grade. These children came from what one might think "good stock," Bohemian, Polish, Irish, German, and a few Greek. A careful examination of these children found them to be, on an average, taller and thinner than an average of Boston children of the same age, spindling and anemic, scantily clothed and apparently neglected. A social worker in the same public school explained the matter. She made an examination of the home life of two hundred of these "below grade" children. She came into intimate touch with one hundred and sixty-eight families, of which the heads of one hundred and ten were unskilled workers who received $1.66 a day when they worked, but the work was irregular. The standard of morality of these people would not allow the overcrowded home, tolerated by the alien. Because of this higher standard, which prohibits the taking in of an excessive number of boarders, too great a proportion of the wage must be paid for rent. The result is a constant lack of food for the children, and this, combined with ignorance of domestic science, means undernourished children.

In the early days of the packing industry, before the skilled workers moved toward the prairie and the alien people had come in, the daughters of these Irish, Scotch, and German families worked in the canning department. There was then no "child labor" law in Illinois and the daughters often went to work as early as eleven and twelve years of age. Widows, but not married women, worked in the yards in that day. The sewing of ham bags was given out to the widows of employes. In the beginning the girls were given the work of labeling, painting and wrapping cans at piece work. A strike in the packing house brought the women in to take the place of men in the stuffing, canning and soldering department. They next obtained a place in the making of chip beef, beef extract, albumen, in the soap house, where they wrapped and packed soap, then into the laundry and tin-can works, and into the departments where bones are ground for buttons, knife handles, etc. About ten years ago, much to the horror of the men, girls were given the knife and put to work in the trimming room, which is colder than an ice-box. Here they were set to work cutting ice-cold meat, at one-third less wages than the men received. In

1903, after the strike of sausage-makers, the women were put into the sausage department, taking the places of boys from sixteen to eighteen years of age, and again receiving much less than, sometimes one-half of, what the boys received. The casing department, called by the workers the "gut room," one of the most unpleasant places for even men to work, has opened its doors to women. Women are found in some packing houses in the pickling cellars, where it is cold and wet. In some places they paste labels on the beef carcasses and hog carcasses on the killing floors, and in contrast, they have also taken for their own the newest department, that of making fruit flavors for soda water fountains. At the time of the strike in 1904 there were from three to five thousand girls working in the yards. It seems at present that there must be even more than this number.

About 1900 the president of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters' Union organized the girls of the stockyards as a separate local, having equal representation with that of the men in the local and national executive and serving on committees on an equality with the men. In one year the membership grew to twelve hundred. This union had representatives from all nationalities; even the negro girl was called sister during the most effective period of the union. But the failure of the strike of 1904 destroyed this local. Before the union was organized the average wage for women had been 75 cents a day. It was brought up to $1.25 and $1.50 a day. It has now returned, in many departments, to less than a dollar.

The alien girls from Austria and Russia were just beginning to come into the industry between the years 1900 and 1904. Since then many have come from the plains of Galicia and are perhaps the most illiterate of all the immigrants, with the lowest standards of living. These girls come, as in one instance, seven together, without the protection of the mother or home, brought by one girl who had been in the neighborhood before. As neither skill nor language is needed, these girls are able to secure work more easily than the men. Because of the uncertain work and poor wages, they are compelled to live herded together in the most promiscuous manner. The very religious girls have no social life, simply work

and church. Those who are not restrained by religion drift into the habit of attending dance-halls connected with saloons. Without protection or restraint, unfortunate conditions are bound to arise.

We are powerless to prevent immigration, but we should restrict it to natural lines and prevent artificial stimulation. The whole system of casual labor must be faced now before we drift to the terrifying position of England. Personally, I stand for the right of labor to organize and look after itself; but it cannot do everything; the problem is too complicated and too great. The employers will not object to skilled labor organizing, if they will promise not to tamper with the unskilled, because the unskilled furnish the surplus that is needed, but it is this surplus that drags the wages down below the point where the American standard of living can be maintained.

While this paper deals with a locality, the problem is national and international and can not be solved either by the mothers or the employers in the packing industry. Since this mass of surplus labor, like the process of ammonia refrigeration, is necessary to the present system of the packing industry, then surely the community has a right to demand that these necessities of the highly organized business be made safe to the individual worker and not dangerous to the social welfare of the community.

Perhaps the individual employer cannot change the irregular work or provide other jobs for the "casuals," but surely the master minds that have, in less than thirty-five years, organized this most marvelous industrial machinery might work out this part of their problem and not leave it to the philanthropist to do a very unsatisfactory and sporadic piece of work. For light on this perplexing problem we turn to the minority report of the British Royal Poor Law Commission, made this past year, in which casual labor or underemployment is given as the fundamental cause of poverty. This conclusion was reached after a scientific study by experts of the institutions that deal with the victims of poverty. From it we would like to take as our own suggestions a few of their remedies. First, that of a thorough and reliable organization of labor exchanges under the national government, where a registered list of the

casual workers could be kept and where they could be classified and distributed according to demand. Another remedy that is suggestive for America is that of half-day industrial and physical training for the young workers. If we could have a law in this country permitting children between fourteen and sixteen to work, if they would give a half day to industrial and physical training, this to be supplied by the Board of Education, it might thin out the crowd and add to the very sparse number of efficient and skilled men and women.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AND THE MUNICIPALITY

BY GRAHAM TAYLOR, WARDEN OF CHICAGO COMMONS

There have been neighbors as long as there have been human beings on earth. It is hard to tell whether families or neighborhoods came first. In the earliest times, single family groups could not safely live far enough apart to be separated at all. So people of the same kinship formed larger "households," which the tribal villages were called. Neighbors were those next to each other both in kinship and locality. To be next to another was to owe him something and to have some rights which he was bound to respect. Neighborly obligations were as sacred as those of religion. Indeed, the most ancient faiths found their highest expression in kinship and its neighborship. Even after the tribes and kindreds began to mingle and merge with each other, neighborliness survived. It is therefore our most primitive possession, our most ancient treasure, the heritage of the race, the one thing common to all who live near each other.

By an instinct as primitive as this racial possession, we shrink from losing it. It lingers, however, more among the poor than among the rich, more among the plain people than the so-called privileged classes, more among those who have only "a common school education" than among those who are said to have a "liberal education." Whatever other forms of association we substitute for this old-time neighbor-

ship, the loss of it is the tragedy of our new times. This loss is accounted for by the substitution of artificial relations for this instinctive natural relationship. It is due chiefly to the different way in which most of us in modern times make our living. In the olden times men lived in small communities, where all knew each other and neighbors lived and worked together. Neighborship was partnership at least to some extent. Now modern industry has swept thousands, even millions of us together in great cities and large towns. Although more interdependent than ever, divisive interests separate men by the sub-divisions of labor. The incoming family loses its neighborship in the huge bulk of population. The country household feels utterly lost and alone in its new city residence. Immigration fortuitously mixes people of many languages and races who cannot mingle with each other, and never would, were it not for their children's ministry of interpretation and mediation. Seasonal or intermittent occupations, temporary jobs, and commercial depressions pull settled families up by the roots, and seldom leave them long enough in one place to take root again. Our manual workers are more and more transient. Many among them are forced to become tramping families. They can thus afford less household equipment. They have less at stake in living anywhere. They think it less worth while to get acquainted, to form friendships, to be neighbors, to identify themselves with the neighborhood circle, the local church or even the school of the district.

What it means for the family group to lose attachments with others, and live detached from fellow men, few of us who have never approached that experience can imagine. At first it drives father, mother and children closer together, but only at first. For after a little while one or another member of the family craves a larger life than its own little circle can afford. As the community of interests narrows and shrivels, each one turns instinctively outward, or shrinks up within a hermit self. Instead of going together, they go apart. Instead of having friends in common, they form individual friendships, which other members of the family do not share. Americanized children often grow to be ashamed of their

foreign-born parents. The education of the second generation becomes the tragedy of the self-sacrificing first generation. Worse still, some yield to the temptations which appeal to the lonely life and feed the starved heart with the stones of impersonal relations, and try to live on lusts instead of the bread of natural affection.

Under these unnatural conditions, it is almost impossible for neighborship to exist, or for the family to survive. When to this experience of a native family, the tragedy of immigration to a foreign land is added, the effect upon family life of the loss of neighborly relations can scarcely be tolerated by those who suffer it, or realized by others. The insurmountable barriers of strange language and customs; the rude reversal of relationship, when parents depend more upon the children as interpreters than children upon parents for guidance; the separation of husband from wife for the first time under the necessity to seek a seasonal job in some distant lumber camp, railway section or shipping route; these and many another experience combine to make a situation pitifully tragic. The immigrant mother thus left for the first time alone, a stranger in a strange land, presses one child to her bosom no less frantically than she struggles to keep her heart in pace with another's progress in the ways of the new land. Racial antipathies array fellow immigrants against each other. Suspicions, born of ignorance of each other, keep at arms' length or bring only within striking distance the native and foreign-born citizens of the same town.

These are some of the factors and forces of our industrial era that destroy neighborship and disintegrate families. Temporariness characterizes every feature and prospect of such a population. The thought of staying in a tenement, or on the street, or in the district in which they have first landed, or where they are not succeeding well, is intolerable to those who have aspirations for themselves or their children. Truancy is as natural as the school is new to the pupil and strange to the parent. Neighborly fellowship, the Sunday school and church connection, too easily seem not worth while, when the family expects to move in a month or two, or not later than next spring. No provision is made by the parent for the play

of the child, the pleasure of youth, the social relation of the sexes in a majority of homes. These recreations become as little and low, as unsatisfying and questionable, as dangerously exciting and demoralizing, as they are merely for the moment or on the spot, as they are provided to catch only the loose penny, the idle hour and the purposeless and detached mind. Thus people lose their sense of belonging to anything or anybody; to the neighborhood, the craft fellowship, the church membership, to citizenship and at last to the family circle itself.

But this is only one side of the picture. For the struggle of neighborliness to survive and express itself in forms adapted to our new industrial times is as brave and hopeful as the loss of it is pathetic.

Sometimes the old-world neighborly relationship is transplanted bodily to the soil of the new world. When immigrants who have been neighbors in the fatherland find themselves near each other in some American city, they form a brotherhood, usually under the sanction of their church and with helpful benefit features, to perpetuate their old-time village or town fellowship. Such a neighborhood fellowship of Italians has transplanted itself from Brindisi to the Seventeenth ward of Chicago and under the roof of Chicago Commons. These transplanted villages, or town neighborhoods, are not destined long to survive the rapid and irresistible changes in American industrial conditions.

The sodalities of the Catholic church, the memberships and brotherhoods of the Protestant churches, the family-like fellowships persistently growing out of and around the Jewish synagogue, which is the most ancient type of the neighborhood still surviving, perpetuate the spirit of neighborliness and give it flexible, but long-accepted forms of development. The fraternal orders and insurance fraternities utilize the old neighborly instinct to stand by each other in the rainy day in order to cement a bond which binds together those of different race, language, creed and condition perhaps more closely than was done by the neighborhood. The modern clubs to a lesser degree furnish circles of association around commercial, intellectual, social and political centers of interest,

which, however, rarely survive the individual member's ability to pay the dues.

Trade unions come nearer to being a natural substitute for the old-time neighborship than any other. Community of interests in the same crafts, the instinct of self-preservation, which leads fellow-craftsmen to feel that they must hang together or they will hang separately, women's auxiliaries, which add to some unions the social and charitable features of the family, the sole dependence upon the benefit of the union for refuge from losses by accident, sickness, lack of work, the lock-out and strike, old-age and by the death of the bread-winner—these very human bonds and benefits make the labor union the only modern neighborhood for many thousands of wage earners in America, who would otherwise cease to be or to have real neighbors.

Parallel with these survivals of neighborship, the social settlements have arisen to revive it. Where neighborliness has died out or has never been born, or has been weakened by removals, or is difficult because of the differences of race, language, religion, customs and condition, there a settlement finds its field to express the neighborship that remains, revive that which wanes, or create that which is lacking. Whatever else it is or does, the settlement should be the neighborhood's own center for the enjoyment, expression and practical use of its neighborliness. Self-initiated and self-governed neighborhood organizations should be as much at home there as the supplementary clubs and classes, organized and managed by the residents. They should work to do things, not for, but with all people of the neighborhood. The settlement exists not to superimpose the ideals or standards of one class or locality upon another, but to help the neighbors develop their own ideals and standards. Its aim is to make neighborliness more interesting, necessary, practicable and valuable to every man, woman and child. The settlement succeeds most and best when the neighborhood comes to the consciousness of itself, awakens to the possibility of doing for itself and realizes its ambition to control itself and improve its conditions.

In the effort to bring this about, this fact demonstrates itself, that neighborship is best promoted when neighbors rec-

ognize their neighborhood to be a part of the whole city, and the interests of the whole city are best promoted by cultivating this neighborhood consciousness amongst all the people of every locality.

A sense of detachment of the part from the whole, or of the whole from any part is as demoralizing, belittling or paralyzing to one as the other. People lose pride and power in their citizenship with the loss of their neighborly relations to each other. And on the other hand their neighborly relations become interesting, influential, and so worth while that they cannot afford to lose them when they are made effective in promoting the progress of the whole city.

Both of these tendencies have been strikingly illustrated in the political rehabilitation of the city council in Chicago. Fifteen years ago the voters in most of the wards had lost their sense of responsibility for the character and qualifications of the aldermen they sent to the city council to legislate for the entire city. Their local pride and neighborhood self-respect in being properly represented there disappeared with their civic consciousness. The Municipal Voters' League, however, had faith in the people to believe that both could be revived. So they entered upon the struggle for the "long-distance championship" by informing and appealing to the citizens' loyalty to the home rule principle, applied to ward politics. And the people did the rest. Ward clubs independently arose, within and between party lines. Local improvement associations, women's clubs, parish societies, men's organizations began to play politics with a public purpose. As these local groups became conscious of a city-wide sphere and influence, they began to take hold of the problems of their home localities far more effectively than ever before. The political revolution found the source of its sustained support in the revival of the neighborhood spirit. And yet the neighborhood spirit revived only at the call for civic loyalty. In no other way can the fact be accounted for that the last victory of the people in electing the candidates endorsed by the Municipal Voters' League was the greatest, and that the honest minority in the city council, which numbered only ten or twelve thirteen years ago when the league was organized has now become the

majority, including all but ten or twelve who are suspected of dishonesty. This revolution could not have taken place and maintained its increasing power, had it not been rooted in a quickened neighborhood life throughout the city.

Very notably did these two influences reciprocally develop each other in one of the largest family tenement-house wards in the city. The racial transformation of its immigrant population had begun to set in. Northern Europeans began to disintegrate and lose heart in the maintenance of their ascendency in the population. Judged by their representatives in the council, however, their political ideals and independence had not for several years been worthy of their personal character or standards of family life. But when the city appealed for better representatives from this ward in the city council, its citizens responded as promptly and effectively as those of any ward in the city. Swinging the independent vote as a balance of power, for twelve years in succession they have selected and elected the better man for alderman irrespective of party. And they have superseded the very worst men in the council by aldermen who have ranked among the very best, in their work not only for the ward but for the city. Meanwhile the people who found it possible to do this great service for the city were roused thereby to serve their own neighborhoods. Street paving, street lighting and street cleaning were greatly improved. The ward got its share of new school buildings and secured one of the best of the new recreation centers. Vicious resorts and gambling houses were suppressed. The number of saloons decreased. Recreations of a higher type were supported. While these things could not have been done without the influence of the ward's better aldermen in the council, it would not have had influential aldermen and they could not have gotten the necessary support from their constituents without the revived neighborship which united the people of twenty-five different nationalities in organizations of their own to overthrow the bosses and ignore the machines and take their own affairs into their own hands. The example set by this population of 60,000 immigrant working people inspired similar efforts all over the city.

If the plans for the city beautiful promoted by Chicago's

commercial leaders and designed by its artist architects furnish the goal toward which the development of the city shall work, the realization of the greater and better Chicago will be made possible only by this revival of the family virtues, working through good neighborship to make the city worthier of its homes, a better place for the next little child to be born in, and where its boys and girls may grow into a nobler manhood and womanhood.

Neighborhoods are the sources of civic strength for progress, and the city is the source of inspiration for neighborhood spirit and co-operation. If detachment results in the apathy and demoralization of both, then in the reattachment of each to the other, and in the identification of both in the common cause, is to be found the open secret of successful democracy.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AND THE MUNICIPALITY

BY PAUL U. KELLOGG, ASSISTANT EDITOR OF THE SURVEY, NEW YORK

A recent magazine writer has pointed out that if you were looking for advances in invention and industry, you would pass over the text of the periodicals, and read the advertising pages. The space there is pre-empted, not by people you indirectly pay to write things which you may or may not want, but by people who think they have found something out so hard that they are willing to pay to tell you about it. The advertisers of certain washing compounds attract street-car publicity and give character to the sanitary problem. They go at it from two points of view. The panegyrists of Grandma's Washing Powder personify the forces of dirt and disorder in two brownish, beetle-like creatures with squirmy legs, Smut and Soot, who are pictured in flight before the spirit of cleanliness, which may be had by the box at the grocer's. Other manufacturers—far older friends of all of us—take the dishevelment of the existing order for granted, and personify the forces of polished cleanliness in the Gold Dust Twins.

Smut and Soot, the Gold Dust Twins—here are wicked and good fairies which everybody who can pay five cents for a street car ride can understand; that they can so understand them and be captivated by them, there are people who are wagering hundreds of thousands of dollars a year, as invested in that advertising space. If we could embody the forces for good and bad that play into social conditions as vividly and unconditionally as do these soap advertisers their wares, there are few things which could not be accomplished through the democratic espousal of social reform. In his new book on "Climax and Product," Dr. Patten draws the picture of a New England town where the imagery of what ought to be has grown dim. It is a summer evening and the closed school, the darkened library and the dimly-lighted church on one side of the street are put in contrast to the agencies of light and refreshment across the way—the nickelodeons and soda-water fountains, where the people flock after the cramping discipline of the day's work. The preacher, who a century ago mustered his town's full spiritual strength, dealt with a hell of roasting heat, a possessible heaven and a personified devil. Whichever portion the theory of infant damnation might hold in store for a particular twin—a future of much soot or a gold dusted hereafter—the outcome was bound to be full of color and private inexorableness. Dr. Patten points out that, while pre-ordination and eternal damnation have lost their compelling power with us, and while we have substituted for them the idea of an earthly attainment of many of those things which the Puritan fathers looked for only after death, we have failed to visualize our conceptions with anything like the old crackling, warmth-giving, brimstone success.

Is there any help for us in our dilemma in that ganglion of interests, conditions, associations, which we group together in the word neighborhood, and which, as our cities have expanded and become cumbersome aggregations of people, have yet shown those persistent elements of self-consciousness which in clans and country sides and villages have manifested themselves in all times? The common element is, I think, that of living together as distinct from that purposeful cohesion which

makes up tribes and states and ports and factories, where the common elements are those of doing, such as making war or fishing or trading or manufacture.

It was the old notion that a man's property right in his real estate reached from heaven to hell. Disregarding the legal thought involved, I fancy that the neighborhood reaches both ways. It is neighborhoods like Hell's Kitchen in New York, like Skunk Hollow in Pittsburg, like the "Orchard" in the small midwestern town where I grew up (for the cities have no monopoly on such things), that the lowest levels of a community's life find tangible embodiment; and it is in other neighborhoods where nature has not been wholly despoiled, where men live graciously in the shadow of great trees and within call of great souls, that we have in some of our cities vistas of what might be. If we compare them, we are struck with the contrast that the second are largely self-contained and final, while the first have powers of reproduction like running creepers; in fact, they thrive best in districts where the gables of old residences bear testimony to an ampler time, where what was the household equipment of a single family in the past is inadequate to meet the wants of the boarding bosses and the many two-room families and one-room families that crowd into them.

My belief is that the real neighborhood workers are disease and ignorance and moral disintegration. They manifest, as no one else, a knowledge of the irresistibleness of a combination of forces upon the life of a district. In a remarkable address, which Lawrence Veiller once gave to a company of business men, he asked them what sort of public reception they thought would be accorded the incorporation in their city of a company to give people tuberculosis. How public opinion would stand for the chartering of a public service corporation to railroad everyday people to jail. How the employers of the town would view a trust fund, the income of which was to be used to reduce the physical and work capacity of their employes. There would be a hue and cry raised against any such enterprise. Yet no corporations could accomplish more far-reaching results in turning ordinary people into invalids,

and jail-birds, and industrial mutts, than the conditions which public opinion tolerated in their city, and which would continue to beset it so long as organized action to rid the town of those conditions was laggard. Now, I believe that were such sinister companies actually chartered in a community they would not attempt a broadcast effort to provoke ills and evils, but would concentrate their operations in districts where there were the fewest forces for health and happiness. That actually is what takes place. In Pittsburgh, we made a series of health maps, covering a five-year period, which showed by a system of cross hatchings the localization of certain great preventable causes of death—typhoid, tuberculosis, diarrhoea and enteritis, pneumonia, bronchitis, and accidental death other than suicide. It was a showing which provoked thought. Certain districts were scarred with a grill-work of heavy tracings, not in one cause of death alone, but in all. A comparison of these maps with population maps and tenement-house maps showed graphically that these were the same wards where congestion and bad housing were rife. In presenting our facts to Pittsburgh, we compared the mortality figures of wards nine and ten and twelve—a group of river wards in the old city, near the mills, peopled for the most part with a wage-earning population of small income—with ward twenty-two, a new residential district in the East End. What are the chances of life, we asked, for the men, women and children living in the one and in the other? The chance of a man's dying of bronchitis in the river wards is two and a half as against one in the East End, it is four of his dying from pneumonia as against one in the East End, five of his dying of typhoid as against one in the East End, six of his dying a violent death as against one in the East End. These are rough proportions merely, but they are of terrific significance. Our American boast that everybody has an equal chance falls flat before them. The dice are loaded when it comes to a man's health in Pittsburgh. I believe you play the game the same way in Buffalo. We do in New York. Yet a workingman's best asset is his health; and the vital and irreplaceable resources of an industrial district, like the river valleys of Western Pennsylvania, or the lake ports of Western

New York, are, in the long run, the health and vigor of its workers.

The unthinking rejoinder is, of course, that where the poorest people are and where they take least care of themselves, there, as a matter of course, you have the most sickness. On the other hand, the bacteriologist of the Pittsburgh Department of Health was probably right in holding that so far as major causes were concerned, death rates have little more to do with ward geography in Pittsburgh than do the direction of the winds that blow over the wards. But to my mind the situation is neither so simple as the one nor so obscured as the other. Typhoid fever, the great scourge of Pittsburgh for twenty-five years, was due in large part to the water supply, which supply, with exceptions which do not concern us, served all districts alike. So far as the major causation of typhoid went, you could not pin it down to one neighborhood. Similarly, the large accident rate in these wards was due primarily to deaths in the tonnage industries of Pittsburgh, an industrial cause rather than a neighborhood cause; while tuberculosis might well be attributed to both factory and neighborhood sources of infection. But take the case of a young woman who had typhoid—due to a general city condition—who, during her convalescence, became a consumptive. Her powers of resistance being weakened by fever, she became a victim to the bad ventilation and cluttered life of the Hill District. Had her home been in the suburbs, she would probably have gotten well. Again, it is workers who are nervously and physically overwrought, due to the operations of industry, who do not throw off domestic infection, and who, once sick with a contagious disease, have least chance of recovery. My point is that, quite apart from the obvious ill-health which may be due to localized filth and congestion, it is the combination of anti-human forces in a district which gives them their fatal power; that in a neighborhood where two or more sources of disease and disintegration operate, you get not only higher general morbidity, but a higher death rate in each great group of diseases. It is a reversal of Donnybrook Fair. The influences which suck a man under, reach up successively and tug at him from every hand.

Now, this fact of common observation seems to me to have a civic significance in two ways. Such a neighborhood offers a stadium for the forces of good to combat those of evil; here we must fight it out if it takes all summer. Here the untoward is massed so that we can size it up and grapple with it, so that we can separate, one after another, the causes that deplete good living and rout them, rather than skirmishing over a wide area after a nimble foe; feeling sure that if we are able to rout those causes here, where they are in force, the rest will be easy; feeling sure that if we find friends of good order and good life and good will in the midst of this worst, as we are bound to find them, we can count upon far greater showings of the strength that is in democracy in our undertakings for the whole city. Moreover, so long as such a neighborhood continues, the whole city is threatened. Here is a weak point in her defenses. If we cannot dislodge misery here by such measures as men have been willing to take, then we must resort to more radical measures. By no juggling with death rates, by no sophistry which points to her own proud public buildings or to the sore spots of other cities, can a city escape the bald testimony of slum conditions against the insufficiency of her civic and economic housekeeping.

The slum neighborhood offers an opportunity to do battle at arm's length; it supplies us with a tell-tale measure of our reform movements; beyond that, it visualizes the anti-human forces of a community. It can be made to strike the public between the eyes as no statements can of general city conditions. It is Smut and Soot in the aggregate. It can be held up as an epitome of what passes current and unnoted in the general community life. A mere marshalling of a town's death rates, or a scientific demonstration that tuberculosis can be prevented, are not sufficient to set self-centered business men, or placid church goers, or the rank and file of a community at work at some of the great common tasks in municipal life. The call must go out in living words of one syllable.

One of the best examples of thus epitomizing in a neighborhood study the downward forces of a community is Miss Lattimore's study of Skunk Hollow, a pocket in the Pittsburgh hills. In its open vaults and cellar rooms and dilapida-

tion, Skunk Hollow summed up the housing problems. In its blind tigers and carousals and houses of ill fame, it showed the need for more and nearer opportunities for clean recreation. Miss Lattimore made us see the dilemma of the Scotch laborer who built a playhouse of rough boards to keep his little girls off the street; the more serious dilemma of the children locked out next door, the father at work, the mother at other people's homes doing washing; incidents leading off into questions of truancy and ultimately of wage scales. Here was a young workman laid up with a crippled leg with no penny from his employer; here a coughing woman with a baby in her arms; there a half sick animal in a cow shed. We are shown the Italian immigrants and the young southern negroes who found their homes here amid filth and immorality; we are given clean-cut human images of what industrial accidents, immigration, tuberculosis, uninspected milk, mean as city problems. Such a picture makes a town wince. Such a neighborhood should be given a bigger significance than to be pointed at as a civic ulcer ready to be lanced. Its wider usefulness is as a symbol by which the people who pay five-cent car fares may understand those drains which are here combined, but which singly and in less spectacular ways are seeping off the strength and life of the city everywhere.

The portrayal of a slum is, however, only the crudest form of neighborhood interpretation. Settlement workers have a broader, more democratic, opportunity as the outcome of their neighborhood work. The strength of the charity organization societies in championing the improvement of living conditions has ever been that they have their feet on the ground; that when they talk of wants and needs, they can give line and text from the lives of real people. Much of civic reform in the past, however, has been in the hands of organizations which, like women's clubs, have not had intimate first-hand knowledge of the common life. Thus, the Sunday-closing movement in Pittsburgh, which stirred up a fruitless agitation against the operation of the mills on Sundays, was sponsored by ministers who had not themselves been inside the mills. The genius of the settlement movement lies in the fact that it has afforded intimate means of approach to the lives of real

people, not of the poor alone, but of self-dependent wage-earners. One of its largest services is to make the needs and wants of such people vocal—to interpret general civic conditions in terms of human beings, that will give them collective and graphic force. Thus, to draw from our experience in the Pittsburgh Survey, we sought a new and incontrovertible expression of the tax which the industrial accidents of the steel district are levying upon the means of the wage earners and their families. By following up 500 fatalities in the course of one year, we found that the proportion of cases in which no dollar of compensation was received from the employer to take the place of lost income was, in the case of both married and single men, considerably over 50 per cent. Such proportions were made terribly real when Miss Eastman cited the personal histories of the families involved. For instance, of six men totally disabled for life, during the period studied, one lost an arm and a leg, one was paralyzed, and four will walk on two crutches for the rest of their lives. Of these six men, three received no compensation, one, $30; one, $125, and one, $365. The facts of the compensation paid to old employes and new, of the boys who were killed at work, of the half sick widows who went out to washings and the children who were forced to leave school—all these were of a sort to put the issue of industrial casualties as never before to the people who make public opinion.

It is in such interpretations of the life about them, according to Miss Addams, Mr. Woods and other leaders in the settlement movement, that neighborhood workers should find one of their chief creative tasks. For instance, in Minnesota, Wisconsin and New York, this next year, state commissions will go into the subject of industrial accidents and the neighborhood workers in the different cities of these states could do no better work than to draw on the experience of their own neighborhoods and to bring the commission's findings home to their own municipalities.

What I have said heretofore has been of the neighborhood in what might be called its negative and more serious aspects. Has it nothing in common with the romanticism of the Gold Dust Twins? I think that it has, and that in this con-

nection we can see the interaction of the neighborhood and municipality more clearly. I take it that the city is too big a proposition for most people to grasp, either as a physical unit or as a community of people. Industrial forces and the administrative necessities of sanitation, police, education, etc., all tend to spread out our cities to such breadths as make a common interplay of ordinary life interests difficult. Not until we get a city summed up in a ball team is there a downright shout for it. This need not be true of a neighborhood or district. Take the experience of the Rochester social centers and civic clubs in developing the spirit of fraternalism among the people of neighborhoods who had for years gone on knowing nothing of each other, but who needed only a meeting place to find their kinship and common qualities. The supervisor, E. J. Ward, tells us in a report just issued of how these centers have been carried on at small expense in certain school buildings. They include gymnasiums, debating clubs, game rooms and civic meetings where free speech is the keynote. They are maintained not as a charity or social service but as a "social exchange" by the people themselves as a part of the work of the public schools. The motto of one club is "From the Corners to the Center," which, as it works out in a boy's life, means from the street corners to the civic center, but in the large means that "people of different groups —political, religious, social—who occupy corners of our fragmentary life become acquainted." A member of one of the women's clubs (nearly all Americans) propounded an axiom which sums up the matter. The occasion was a reception they gave to the Italian Men's Club, and the axiom, unconsciously given as a new and personal discovery, was "that people who are so different are so much the same." The Scotch fencing master of one of the centers says that they realize his boyhood dreams of a people's palace; while older residents of Rochester are quoted as seeing in them such a common means of acquaintance and free debate as centered around the "little red school houses" of their own youth.

My point is that even a city the size of Rochester is too big for a conception of the municipality—of the actualities of brotherhood potential in it; that as a whole it is too vague, too

spread out, too heterogeneous for us to grasp readily; but that my city may be interpreted to me by my neighborhood, for a neighborhood and its people are tangible and can be lumped together. It is in local centers standing for their districts, as the school-houses did for their villages, that we may find the Grail of our civic quest, like Sir Launfal's, near home.

The democratic self-consciousness of a neighborhood—and in this connection I am using neighborhood in the broader sense of district—can be accentuated and given objective in purely physical ways. For instance, the St. Louis plan for grouping local public buildings, and the recreation centers of Chicago, which bring a visible and beautiful symbol of the city within walking distance of the outlying tenement neighborhoods. They meet, primarily, not city needs nor family needs, but neighborhood needs—of space to play, of places for meeting and rubbing elbows, for intercourse and refreshment and body building. They gather up and trellis the forces that trend upward in the life of a neighborhood, just as disease and discomfort and despair combined in a slum suck downward in what becomes a sinkhole of life. We are only at the beginning of developing what is clearly possible, both in neighborhood self-consciousness and in the physical re-ordering of the residential districts of a town. We are beginning to see how neighborhood darkness and clutter and even dead levelism, which is worse, can be broken into and some of the nascent forces for good inherent in the people can be loosened, ultimately to become factors in the forward life of the city.

But neighborhoods, as well as neighborhood life, are in the making in America, and foresight and collective action at this period can radically improve the physical environment of home areas for generations to come. I have in mind the Harbourne estate, near Birmingham, where a co-operative housing company has bought up a homes site for 500 families and plotted it quite as much from the point of view of the neighborhood as from the point of view of the individual homes that are to make it up. By slightly reducing the area of land about each house, a large playground for the children of the district has been prearranged without adding to the real estate cost of the enterprise as a whole or of the individual house-

holds. Similarly, the side streets are not laid out in great wastes of asphalt and cement sidewalks, but in narrow roadways that further reduce costs. Trucking can be done through the main thoroughfare. In Frankfort one great co-operative housing company makes its plans for a square instead of a single building, with common gardens and free space instead of piecemeal backyards in the center of the block. It builds what might be called a neighborhood house in the very center, with library and reading rooms and baths and music rooms for the use of the whole square. These are, of course, merely suggestive of what people in one city are doing to plan its suburbs wisely, and in another to rationalize the construction of multiple dwellings in the heart of the city. We have had architects who have made great advances in steel construction, in designing stairways, windows and air shafts; and we have had city planners lay out great thoroughfares and zones of a commercial center. Is there not a further field for the neighborhood architect to put more of our American ingenuity into the laying out of the neighborhoods where people live?

In Boston a concerted effort is being made to organize local sentiment for improvement in different sections of the city. A year ago, five or six district improvement associations were taking active, permanent interest in questions of parks, playgrounds, schools, sewers, etc. There was room within the city boundaries for fully thirty such organizations and a group of men engaged an exploring secretary for a year to see the lay of the land. He was a newspaper man and went at it with the same thoroughness as a lawyer investigating a case, or a physician, or a social worker. Wherever a moribund organization was found—and there were a dozen or more of them lying around loose—he tried to rekindle it, rather than leave it to detract from the new movement. Take the story of the Charlestown Improvement Association, which held no meetings, collected no dues, and did nothing. The active men in the district were seen. One man would answer that the trouble was political, others that the association had nothing to do; it was some weeks before the real reason cropped out; ninety per cent of the people living in the district are Catholics

and the organization was looked upon as Protestant. The second step was to get a nucleus of men together which would be thoroughly representative. After inquiries in many quarters, the number simmered down to six men—a grocer, a real estate man, a restaurant keeper, an undertaker, the clerk of the district court, the superintendent of the Sailors' Haven. They were asked to meet together, but only one showed up—the grocer in whose store the meeting was held. Ten days later, another meeting was held; two were there; a third meeting, four; a fourth meeting, the whole six, and agreement was reached to get the old president of the old organization to call a general meeting. It was surprising the number of civic needs Charlestown found it had, at that meeting. For example, it developed that three years ago the city had appropriated $30,000 for a branch public library there, and the money had lain in the treasury since. A committee was appointed to take up the matter. The elevated company has recently opened a tunnel, but the meeting brought out that the people of Charlestown had to change cars three times to get to Park street, in the center of the city. The association has secured through cars.

Similarly, in East Boston, the district improvement organization numbered 500 members several years ago. It went into dry rot, the office of president alone persisting vigorously. It was to be found in the letterhead of the editor of a local paper, who printed it in large type and used it for his own purposes. He refused to call a meeting. By dint of the same methods as those used in Charlestown, a new organization has been formed, and one of its first tasks has been to support a plan for building a recreation center on Chicago lines, on the old site of what was the first public bath and gymnasium in the United States.

Easy criticism of this sort of district activity is that it turns a municipality into a grab-bag with a prize for everybody. No wonder it is popular, say its critics. Yet, as I see them, these critics are invariably of the sort who are equally insistent in demanding another kind of civic goods—quiet, orderliness and low taxation—goods which, in Boston, for instance, lay small hold on the minds of the great Irish con-

stituency. Quiet and orderliness and low taxation are, after all, bestowals of the city not so different in essence from the band concerts in the park, the recreation grounds, the low rentals, which are understandable to the vast majority, and which we have attained only in small degree for our great city populations—the sort of civic well-being that is less abstract and lends itself to a more vivid personal embodiment. Wouldn't it pay a community to have such a working conception of the city as would sell soap. Our present methods have failed to tap the full resources of public interest which are dormant in the rank and file.

We have no assurance that the distribution of hyacinths to the Roman mobs would have turned out any better than the distribution of bread; but the present is a time of retrenchment and economy preaching in influential quarters in most American cities, and I think we can make a serious mistake in too readily accepting the purely taxpayers' definition of what is and is not legitimate municipal service, what people have a right to demand who live miles out from the historic seat of the town-pump and meeting house, and whose houses and yards cannot afford the elbow room and social refreshment which were inherent in the old time homesteads. It is in the neighborhood that many of these newer, less generally accepted municipal services must be tried out, and I, for one, am in favor of increased experiment in these directions. Neighborhood workers have already done much in broadening our a priori judgments as to what in actual practice is the influence of such municipal enterprises. The real test of such expenditures lies, of course in whether they make for strength in the people who use them, or tend to get people into the habit of lying down on the public—of whether, as Governor Hughes said of the Rochester school-house centers, they buttress democracy and become a place where good health is contagious.

Two ever-present weaknesses in organization for local improvements are, of course, that they spend themselves in log-rolling for special favors before councils, or lapse into disuse once a library or park or other special object is obtained. The old Charlestown and East Boston Associations are in point. Neigh-

borhood work should be keyed up to the municipality as a whole. Professor Forbes of the Rochester Board of Education holds that the social centers there keep before them the well-being of the community; Judge Sullivan, president of the United Improvement Associations of Boston, comprising seventeen district organizations, states that the prime purpose of the federation is to broaden the existing ward sense into a sense of the city as a whole.

It is here that a city program such as that of the Boston-1915 movement has a distinct advantage. Properly managed, it may prevent log-rolling, may keep interest going in all quarters, may make local organizations feel they have responsibilities toward city improvement as a whole, and may see to it that municipal expenditures in these new directions make for strength and productivity rather than for a deadening communism. More than that, by linking local improvements with larger, more abstract, sanitary and social reforms, the driving power of self-interest can be harnessed for the general civic good. There are limits beyond which you cannot excite a ward over tuberculosis. It is hard to get up three cheers and a tiger for the removal of adenoids from the throats of 300 school children. But if a workman gets a playground for his kids through Boston-1915, he is likely to shout for the whole program, even if he doesn't understand it. This is psychology as old as political platforms. It is injecting into our communal associations that element of self-interest which has been so powerful in industrial life.

Early in my address, I noted that the neighborhood is an intermediate group between the family and the city, among those communal organizations in which people *live* as distinct from purposeful organizations in which they *work*. Professor Giddings differentiates these groups, calling the one the social composition, the other the social constitution. During the last few generations, these latter units, the producing groups, have developed organically in a supreme way, such as trusts and transportation lines. They have reached the point where they overtop other social grouping. The very desperateness with which we have clung to our conceptions of individual freedom and family responsibility has retarded any corresponding de-

velopment in those social groupings, where men live together. Any one who studies the despotic trend of organization in economic life, as evidenced in the working shifts of our large mills and factories, may well be glad that this has been so, that the political idealism of the race has kept these living groups free of the machine-like ordering of existence. Yet the very strength of organization in the economic order becomes a menace to the well-being of the groups in which men live together. These are at the mercy of the producing groups who supply them with oil and bread and meat and clothes and shoes. There must be a stronger organization of the communal life in the very interest of that freedom and independence of which it has long been the guardian. One may be vigorous in his opposition to the merging of all common activities in the state and yet espouse a movement by which the people of a neighborhood or a city may make their common environment or needs the subject of united achievement.

If it is not in our residential neighborhoods, where men rest and play and meet each other on a non-competing footing, that we are to attain a little of heaven upon earth, I do not know where we are going to get it. As a social unit, the neighborhood is as yet an agency of only spasmodic self-expression. It remains today the most backward of our communal institutions. Even in the face of economic disintegration, the family has shown great reserves of strength; in routing out grafters and in entering upon large public achievements, our cities are manifesting new functional life. For the most part neighborhood development has been inhibited. It is ludicrous when you compare it with, say, a soap factory. I am not altogether sanguine as to how far it can be developed as an instrument of social life, yet it is primed with direct human interests, wants and common causes. Is it impossible that it may be made a footing where a workman will have standing outside his mill, where others outside his trade can understand the things he is up against. In these days of transient households can the neighborhood supply something of stability to our moving city populations. Can it be of help in building up a new body of associations with the soil from which people are at present insulated, not so much by cement walks and

asphalt pavements, as by the cash nexus of their relationships to the means of existence. All our agitations thus far against the rising cost of living have lacked power of effecting much because they have lacked organized popular backing. By supplying centers for discussion and common action to the householders of a city as householders, there is perhaps a chance that the neighborhood may become a democratic force in the process of solving the sore, underlying economic problem of our city populations today—great, inchoate bodies of consumers living long distances from their sources of supply, and dealing on what terms they may with aggressive, highly organized purveyors of the essentials of life. It is a bread and butter problem, in which democracy needs every resource.

PUBLIC RECREATION

BY L. H. GULICK, M. D., PRESIDENT PLAYGROUND ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

(*Abstract.*)

Philanthropy may be looked at from three points of view:

First—Curative: The sympathetic but often too brief-lived response to sudden and dramatic appeals, such as help for the injured in a mine disaster, the survivors of an earthquake, the forsaken and starving wife and child.

Second—Preventive: Of far greater ultimate value, though less dramatic, are steps toward the prevention of all forms of disease, the prevention of child labor, industrial accidents, of dirt, darkness, bad ventilation and overcrowding in sleeping and living rooms, etc. Matters of such tremendous social import are not to be measured in terms of dollars and cents, though we are only just beginning to realize them even thus rudimentarily.

Third—Constructive: More important than either prevention or cure is the positive production of good. The rapid and inevitable growth of cities creates incidental evils that are removable by sanitary engineers. It does more; it gives unprece-

dented opportunities for the development of humankind on a higher plane physically, mentally and morally than ever before, opportunities open before only to the few. And all this because it means human companionship, the best of all good, and the common striving for the ideal.

One of the greatest of the factors in constructive philanthropy is the provision for public recreation—not the revivals of past recreations but the intelligent interpretation of the possibilities present in modern city life; the constructive use of lecture halls, parks, art workshops, libraries, public baths, splendid streets and buildings. We have begun to do this in the case of the library. To make the best use of these agencies requires co-operation in large groups, for we are helpless as individuals even to prevent the bad. It is not enough that we have restrictive legislation in regard to dance halls, moving-picture shows and the like, or that we prevent our children from going to them. We must do something to provide adequately for the natural and right desire for exercise, amusement, music, dancing and association with friends.

The problem of the city dance hall is fundamentally typical. The dance halls have grown up to meet the need of young people to come together, the need once met by the husking-bee and barn dance. But this need is exploited by saloon-keepers and dance hall managers on the lowest possible mercenary basis—largely because no one else has cared to take heed. It is poor economy for any community to exploit these wholesome desires for financial purposes in such a way as to impose almost certain disaster upon its young people. The matter of the dance hall is one of many problems requiring community action, constructive as well as restrictive legal control. It is necessary to divorce the dance hall from the saloon, to have it under thoroughly good auspices, to make it possible for whole families to be present.

Similar problems arise in connection with playgrounds, moving-picture shows, the legitimate use of parks, the establishment of festival traditions on national holidays—the Fourth of July, Washington's birthday, election day and the like. Springfield, Mass., has solved its Fourth of July problem by having a great festival in which all citizens, young and old, native and foreign-born, realize their unity in a common celebration.

PUBLIC RECREATION

BY EDWARD JOSHUA WARD, SUPERVISOR OF SOCIAL CENTERS AND PLAYGROUNDS, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

(*Abstract.*)

The world consists of things which need re-creation and people who need recreation.

The value of recreation is measured by its effect in fitting people to re-create things; that is, to work.

All work, all re-creation, is, in a sense, public. It follows that all recreation is, in a sense, a public matter.

A large share of the work of the world is the result of comparatively private activity. For this private initiative, private interest, is necessary. Corresponding to it there is a large sphere for private individual recreation.

A greater share of the world's work is the result of group co-operation. For its successful accomplishment, the co-operative spirit is needed. Corresponding to it there is a large sphere for group recreational activities.

The greatest, most important work of the world is, increasingly, public work. For its successful accomplishment, the development of public spirit is absolutely necessary.

Along with the appeal to duty by the preacher, and the shaming of the people by the "muckraker," and more effective than either of these, public recreational developments are a means to the development of hearty public spirit.

Public recreation must meet practically universal needs. Some of these are, the need of opportunities for play, the need of opportunities to go back home to the woods and fields, to outdoor nature, and the need of opportunities for swimming.

The public satisfaction of these needs requires large public expenditure, for which there is necessary a development of public spirit.

The problem is to find public means of recreation that will satisfy universal needs and will not cost much.

The needs of music, art and reading, of entertainments of various kinds, of physical exercise under wholesome supervision, of games, and especially of social intercourse of various kinds, notably free discussion, are universal needs.

Their satisfaction requires buildings which fulfill three conditions: first, they must belong to all the people; second, they must be accessible to the people of all communities; third, they must have about them the right sort of atmosphere.

Public school buildings fulfill these requirements.

Their equipment and maintenance as social and recreational centers is a matter of comparatively small expense.

Their use does tend directly toward the development of intelligent hearty public spirit, if they are founded and conducted upon certain principles. These are: first, social exchange instead of social service; second, absolute freedom of discussion; third, democratic control.

In addition to being a common sense economic project, the use of the school buildings as public social and recreational centers makes a strong appeal as a means of restoring to the community's life the social benefits that attended the social uses of the little red school house "back home."

By the experience of Rochester the development of the use of the school buildings is shown to be a feasible means of the supplying of public recreational needs.

The judgment of Governor Hughes: "I am more interested in what you are doing and what it stands for than in anything else in the world. * * * You are buttressing the foundations of democracy," is one of many indications that this movement is a step in the right direction.

The principle of beginning with that means which we already have, making the most of that, and so extending the movement, may well apply to the matter of public recreation as well as to all other forms of progressive human activity.

A complete, detailed statement of the spirit and methods, including costs, programs, etc., with sixty or more illustrations, of the development of the use of public school buildings as social and recreational centers in the city of Rochester has been published by the League of Civic Clubs of this city under the title "The Story of the First Two Years of the Rochester Social Centers and Civic Clubs," and may be procured from any bookseller or from the Board of Education or the Chamber of Commerce or the Trades and Labor Council or from almost any organization or body in Rochester.

Health and Sanitation

OPPORTUNITIES OF PUBLIC HEALTH OFFICIALS

BY ROY SMITH WALLACE, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE COMMITTEE FOR THE STUDY AND EXHIBIT OF THE FORCES AFFECTING CHILDREN IN NEW YORK CITY

There are several health departments throughout the country which seem really alive to the magnitude of the interests committed to their care, which realize the far-reaching possibilities of their job and the immense social service which they can render. In New York, Chicago and Rochester—to instance only three of the leading cities—public health officials have realized the serious responsibility under which they labor, and have made intelligent and vigorous attempts to make their office what it really should be, the most important of the functions of the city.

I ask you to consider just for a moment the tremendous importance of the work of the public health officials. In the first place, they touch directly and potently the fundamental needs of man—the need for food, for shelter, for water and for air; without these things man cannot even live; and on the public health officials in a city community is the responsibility to see to it that food, water and air are pure and wholesome, and that shelter is sanitary. Even the department of education has no such vital functions, affecting such vital, fundamental environment, as these.

And notice, too, that it is no single part of the population to whom the health officials render their service; not to the dependents, nor to the children, nor to any one class alone, but to the whole population.

The issues which depend on these fundamental facts of health are the considerations that bring them so inevitably within the field of the social worker—are the unanswerable

arguments which make it imperative that every social worker shall be primarily interested in these facts of public health. Shall the father be able to earn his livelihood and support his family? The most frequent negative is ill health. Shall the thrifty worker be able to save up a bank account against misfortune in the future? The most frequent rainy day is the day of sickness, and it means ruin to the bank account. Are the children to be alert to the educational opportunities that open the future to them? Only if they are well. And I do not speak of the sorrow and the struggle and the heartache that follow always in the steps of disease, and that congregate in despair when death results.

In all probability, too, the outcroppings of disease in acute and visible form are only the smaller part of the injury wrought by bad air, food and water. In all probability the weakened constitution and the generally negative, low-voltage health power, which are surely caused by impure water, foul air, dirty food and defective sanitation, even when these do not reach their extreme development in typhoid or consumption, are a larger cause of social misery than the acute diseases themselves.

In view of considerations such as these—which I do not need to amplify, for they are the very commonplaces of the new view of charity—it is only the most short-sighted of social workers who can fail to lend his utmost support to an adequate health administration, and his utmost opposition to an unintelligent and perfunctory performance of such serious duties. To dabble with hospitals and dispensaries and family relief work—indispensable as all this is—and to neglect these major duties, is to maintain the ambulance at the foot of the cliff, and never to "build the fence" at the edge of the precipice above.

For just notice, most briefly, what social results have already been achieved through our health departments. Take New York City alone. I do not wish to mention all the splendid work which the New York City health department has done with tenements or milk inspection, or examination of defective school children or any of the other methods by which they have achieved results. I merely wish to point out the results of all this work, and of much more besides, as revealed

in the death rate, that infallible index of social health and disease.

During the last forty years the death rate in New York City has been reduced 30 per cent. In those diseases to which the health department has most directly devoted attention, the reduction is even more striking. The death rate from consumption, for example, has decreased 40 per cent; from typhoid fever, 42 per cent; from diphtheria, 66 per cent; from smallpox, 95 per cent; all as the direct result of the application by the public health authorities of medical knowledge to the health of the city. These dry figures, you will remember, mean literally thousands of human lives lengthened, mean additional years of family support, of health, comfort and pleasure to thousands and thousands of families in New York City. They represent the result of a wholesale method of doing exactly what most of our charity workers are doing by the retail method.

You will have noticed that the great reduction in death rates has come, of course, in those diseases for which medical science had pointed out new methods of control. The health departments have simply availed themselves of the medical advancement of their times, and have utilized this for the benefit of the community, taking the obvious steps as the science has directed.

In exactly the same way, there are medical facts and certainties, representing the medical advancement of today, which only wait to be applied with equal thoroughness to give equally great results today. The obvious steps today—in connection with food supply, water supply, air supply, effective sanitation, adequate inspection and examination—are perhaps somewhat more complicated, involve somewhat wider ramification and increased labor and expense; but they are as certainly directed by a medical science as wise and sure as the previous advances, and would as surely repay the greater effort. They represent the present opportunities of our health officials. It is, of course, impossible to enumerate all these indicated steps. The following seem to me leading opportunities:

The case of tuberculosis we are most of us familiar with. We are now everywhere bestirring ourselves, because facts have

shown us that this is a terrible disease, and medical science has shown us that it is a preventable disease, and has pointed out how, if we will, we can control it. Most health departments have been aroused to an appreciation of their opportunity in connection with tuberculosis. It remains only to do more, and do it more thoroughly.

Most health departments are not, however, aroused to their opportunity in connection with infant mortality. The facts here are just as terrible, and have been shown to be just as preventable as in the case of tuberculosis. Throughout the country, in the cities, about one-third of all the deaths are deaths of children under five years of age; about one-quarter of all the deaths are deaths of children under one year of age. There were nearly twice as many deaths in 1907 in New York City of children under one year of age as there were total deaths from tuberculosis, and these deaths, as in the case of tuberculosis, are very largely preventable. Dr. Goler, in Rochester, one summer reduced infant mortality 50 per cent by insuring pure milk. The reduction of the death rate by the "Consultations" in France is marvelous. In one district, Toucy, the infant mortality rate before the establishment of the Consultation was 197 deaths per 1,000 births; after the first year of the Consultation it had decreased to 120 deaths per 1,000 births, and after the second year to fifty deaths per 1,000 births—a ratio representing just about the normal number of deaths from congenital debility. And these records are repeatedly duplicated merely by the establishment of the Consultation, by which good advice and suitable and pure food are assured. Here is a death record as terrible and as preventable as the tuberculosis record, and here is another opportunity for a live health department.

Another opportunity for the health official lies in the direction of better and more effective health in children, and in this case also actual experience has shown the opportunity to be one which can be realized practically, viz: The medical inspection and examination of school children for physical defects. This examination has revealed that anywhere from 50 to 80 per cent. of our public school children have defects which handicap them, which make all our generous educational provisions

less effective and less useful than they should be, and which in most cases remain as permanent defects all through the life of the individual, rendering him less capable of self-support and more liable to disease than he need be. In almost all cases these defects are easily remedied while the child is young. In New York City a method of notifying parents and of following up to see that the necessary corrections are actually made, has been worked out and is now being applied. When efficiently carried out it will mean that the 75 per cent of our school children who are today in some way physically defective, and therefore liable to disease, and who are later to be 75 per cent of our total citizenship, will in the near future not be defective, and will therefore be healthier and more capable of self-support. It is difficult to think of a larger opportunity than this for a live health department.

In many cities the inspection of the sources of the food supply and of the markets for the distribution of the food supply is a recognized means of protecting the public health. It includes generally the inspection of the sources and the distributing points for milk, meat, bread, fruit, vegetables, etc. To a fair extent, this is today a recognized function of the health department, so far as the larger markets are concerned. Some of the wisest of our health officials are looking forward to large results in the day when this inspection is something more than a perfunctory routine and when they can inspect adequately, not merely the large public markets, but especially the small street cart market, from which so large a portion of disease and low voltage health power comes. The health department that will inspect the push cart markets of the poor as thoroughly as the larger recognized markets will have seized a big opportunity.

I have intimated that these concrete and immediate opportunities are all obvious steps, all absolutely sanctioned and directed by the present state of medical science; and I have intimated, too, that the hesitancy in following the scientific bidding in these cases is largely due to the effort and expense involved in carrying out these behests of science. How are the health departments to inspect the city food supply—essential as such inspection is medically demonstrated to be—when they

have not the men or the money to do it with? How shall the city of Cleveland, for instance, keep its milk supply pure, when it is supplied by 5,000 dairies located in three states, and when it has only twelve inspectors? How can a city like New York possibly afford a force large enough for adequate push cart inspection? I suppose the real answer to such questions is the Yankee's—How can we afford not to have them? How can we be so foolish as to continue to pay the heavy bills for hospitals, dispensaries, medicines and doctors; how can we continue to support at heavy cost hosts of remedial charitable associations; and how can we continue to stand the heavy loss both of earning power and of savings, which inadequate health supervision certainly compels? The Pittsburgh Survey revealed the fact that in only six of the forty wards of Pittsburgh, the single disease, typhoid fever, cost merely in dollars and cents, for doctors' bills and loss of wages, more than $200,000 in one year. The total health appropriation of the city is far under $100,000. This answer, true and effective as I believe it to be, is not, however, as yet accepted by the public nor in many cases by health officials themselves; and certainly as the facts stand today the health departments *are* crippled and handicapped and prevented from doing thorough work by a lack of funds due to a lack of public understanding of the importance of their work.

There is another, which is *the* other, chief hindrance to the effective prosecution of thorough scientific work by health departments. This is the lack of high-grade, well-trained men in our public health offices. The tuberculosis campaign could be won, the infant mortality rate could be cut in half, the health records of our cities could be bettered 100 per cent, if only our health officials were efficient, trained men, capable of doing more than the routine perfunctory work, capable of grasping a vision of the opportunities of their office. As a matter of fact, most of our health officials are political appointees, spoilsmen looking for official plums. Even in the advanced cities, it is an individual and almost accidental matter that health administration is strong. No one, even in these advanced cities, thinks of the position of health commissioner as a title that should grace only a capable and trained man.

The office does not confer honor, falling only to recognized ability; on the contrary, it is only by happy chance that some rare man makes the office seem as big and important as it really is. And even so, the subordinates are generally political henchmen.

These two facts—lack of funds and lack of efficient health officials—are the chief hindrances to effective, scientific and thorough-going public health administration. They are both the result of public ignorance and lack of appreciation, and can be remedied only when the public really feels that the administration of the public health is too vital a matter to be trusted to spoilsmen, and too vital a matter to be handicapped by the lack of funds.

It is this ignorance and lack of appreciation on the part of the public which I want to couple with one other set of facts to make my final point. It is public ignorance and lack of appreciation that hinders the most effective work of the health department by withholding funds and by not demanding trained service; it is also public ignorance and lack of appreciation which makes the work of the health department unnecessarily heavy. The remedy for the spread of consumption, we all know, is public understanding of consumption—of its cause, its methods of contagion and its cure. The chief cause of infant mortality is maternal ignorance; the most effective remedy is public understanding of infant feeding and hygiene. A largely contributing cause of the terrible spread of venereal diseases with all their terrible consequences is public ignorance; a large factor in the remedy is a public understanding of the causes and effects of this contagion.

And so it goes—the public ignorance that makes the problem hinders the solution; the lack of understanding that causes and spreads diseases withholds funds and refuses to demand high-grade service for their cure. So that the great need and the great opportunity of our public health officials is the education of the public.

It is really most impressive, the way this fact has been brought home to the thinking health officials of the country. I corresponded with many of them, I talked with some, I read the reports of nearly all, and in every case I got the same mes-

sage—We must educate the public. This seems to be the great need of our health departments, and therefore the great opportunity.

It seems to me that in this matter the public health officials might well put into their book of routine a leaf from the work of the anti-tuberculosis campaign. Certainly on this subject the country has been aroused; certainly there is a fairly high grade of public intelligence concerning the danger and the curability of this disease; and certainly, too, there has been little difficulty in securing funds for this crusade. Both public and private agencies have been able to get both laws and money as they needed them for the purpose of stamping out tuberculosis. They have had success as no other health crusade has had success, and this success has been made possible by an adequate publicity which has really aroused and informed our public.

So I wish to emphasize publicity as one of the big opportunities of our public health officials. It is a method of popular education and of advertising public health needs which every department ought to use. Several of our health departments have adopted various devices for publicity. Buffalo, Boston and Chicago, for example, publish a Health Bulletin, sent at regular intervals of a week or month, to a large list of interested people. Boston sees to it that the owners of condemned or unsanitary dairies get regular bulletins announcing their own uncleanliness, and advertising the sanitary condition of some rival's plant. The Chicago department has a daily health hint in every issue of the Chicago Tribune. Almost all of the departments have regular tracts concerning infant feeding, contagious diseases, consumption and so forth, for routine distribution. This practice of expenditure for publication is capable of very fruitful extension. The bulletins today are often pretty technical, are sent out much less widely than they could be, and sometimes even are not sent at all to the people who most should get them, the market men, the owners of the dairies and slaughter houses, the landlords, etc., who most need to know the work of the various health departments.

One of the most effective weapons in the tuberculosis campaign has been the public exhibit. This is valuable because it

can be taken around to the downtown crowded quarters of the city and exhibited to large crowds of uninformed citizens; and it presents the vivid, visual demonstration which gets so much further into the minds of the untutored than reasoned printed statements. It is not a fad, this exhibit method of popular education, for it has sound psychology and pedagogy behind it. Health departments can use it with great effect; as witness the New York State Health Department Tuberculosis Exhibition, which has done much throughout the state to inform the people concerning tuberculosis, and to make possible the passage of the advanced law which is now on our statute books. If these tuberculosis exhibits have aroused intelligent popular interest, why not also similarly exhibit the similarly stirring facts about infant mortality, about impure milk supply, about unsanitary dwellings, about poisonous water supply or drainage? The method worked well with tuberculosis; it worked well in securing tenement legislation in New York City; it worked well with typhoid and industrial accidents in Pittsburgh, and it should be part of the publicity campaign of every health department.

There is one further phase of this urgent matter of popular education as to health facts that I wish to present. All health department officials are agreed with a startling unanimity that popular education is the chief of the remedies for public ill health. All, in various ways, and with various degrees of success, are now trying to educate the public—by bulletins, by tracts, by newspaper articles, by speeches, by exhibits, by maternity nurses, by inspectors, etc.

Why should they not make the final and logical effort—the effort for the instruction of the children in the public schools regarding the health facts of life? Why should they not insist that this whole matter of the education of the public concerning public health be taken up by the department of public education?

Surely such facts are a part of any real education; only an obsolete and conventional definition could call any man or woman educated who was uninformed as to these, the most essential of all facts of life, the facts which make all other facts possible. This view of education, moreover, is today the

prevailing view. We are leaving behind the traditional cultural education, and today we are seeking for an education that shall really fit for the actual, and not the ideal but impossible, life. Today, educational leaders are seeking to make the curriculum fit the facts—to train boys for their vocation, for their actual work in the world; to train girls for domestic life, for their actual work in the world. Is not the time, then, just ripe for the health departments to insist that into this new view of education shall also come some place for the instruction of all our population in the facts which are so necessarily inherent in any real training for actual life? We are more and more teaching our girls domestic science, meaning by this, cooking and sewing; why not also teach them some real domestic science, the facts of maternity, of infant feeding and mortality, of infant training; the facts of food contamination, of impure milk, etc.? The girls of our cities, "the little mothers of the tenements," charged with the care of children almost before they are themselves in school, are surely capable of understanding and of seeing the relevancy and importance of such instruction. We teach our boys physiology and hygiene; why not teach them some real physiology and hygiene, explaining to them the real facts of life? The boys of our street and public schools—worldly wise and tolerant at twelve—would surely understand and appreciate scientific instruction on these facts. And what an additional blessing would education then render to all the future mothers and all the future fathers of the city; and how unnecessary would much of the work of the health department be—work which today can touch only the few, after the occasion for need has at least in part passed, and which at best has to be hastily done under the pressure of an overburdening mass of other work.

The department of health of Richmond, Va., has already made a start in this direction, preparing health leaflets used for instruction in the public schools. The vacation public schools of New York City have shown by their small beginnings how certain success is. The new "Syllabus on Teaching Civics," prepared by the National Civic League, contains also a chapter on the teaching of the problems of public health. Here is a big opportunity for a health department—to insist

that our educational program now being revised to meet the needs of modern life shall not fail to contain provision for adequate and real instruction concerning both private and public health.

So intelligent a program of publicity and education, thoroughly carried out—which I regard as the chief opportunity and responsibility of public health officials—would go far toward solving the problems of our public health departments. The problems themselves would be easier, the means for their solution more abundant. There would remain, however, the necessity which is today another crying need, the need for trained men to administer these offices of so vital a social importance. Once give your thought to this department, once form a conception of the magnitude and necessity of its work, and of the possibilities and opportunities involved in its intelligent administration, and at once you see how weak and inadequate most of the health officials of the country appear. They are spoilsmen; they are unintelligent; they are perfunctory; they are untrained. Unfortunately they are necessarily untrained. In all this country there is no place where a public health official can really learn his job, can really be brought to a comprehensive view of the problems of his office and of the various methods of solution. In England, five universities offer complete courses, with a degree, in public health. No man can be a public health official in an English city without having taken this training. This is an ideal we must look forward to and work for. It is an ideal, moreover, which we can realize in the near future, if the health departments of the country will once voice the demand for trained service in their work. Columbia and Harvard and Massachusetts Institute of Technology have taken single steps in this direction; and they only need to feel the insistent demand from the health departments throughout the country in order to enlarge their training and soon create the supply; so that some day in the immediate future it may be possible to get in this country a training that will fit a man to realize the opportunities confronting a health official, and to meet with intelligence and effectiveness the health problems of his city.

PRIVATE PHILANTHROPY AND PUBLIC HEALTH

BY LUTHER H. GULICK, M. D., CHAIRMAN BACKWARD CHILDREN INVESTIGATION OF THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

In the endeavor to solve problems connected with the health of public school children in New York City, a conclusion has been forced upon me which, while not new, seems to deserve particular emphasis at the present time. The fundamental assumption is that in the main and with notable exceptions—matters of religion, for example—those activities that concern practically an entire community should be conducted through the official agents of the community and paid for by the municipality. The conclusion to which I desire to call attention is that one of the greatest—if not the greatest—functions of private philanthropy is to bring about this state of affairs. For example, the public schools of New York City were started by private philanthropy, but they have finally become—as they should be—a municipal department.

It must permanently remain the duty of private philanthropy to keep guard over public interests, to afford opportunity for the experimentation and demonstration of new measures and to conduct campaigns of educating the community to advancing ideals in education, in order that private philanthropy may ultimately bring about right action on the part of municipal departments.

The following are some experiences that lend support to my thesis. These particular efforts are cited, not because the needs that they aimed to meet were unique, but because those needs are common.

As director of physical training I had control of the gymnastics conducted in the public schools of New York City. School children form the largest sedentary class in American life. To give to each child his rightful heritage of an erect spine and good circulation, respiration and digestion, notwithstanding the effects of long school hours and the rigid school desk, is the primary aim in prescribing school gymnastics. Exercises for the attainment of these ends formed a part of the required work in both the elementary and high schools of New York

City. It was at times inspiring, and again oppressive, to think of 600,000 children daily performing exercises that I had assigned to them.

I yield to no one my belief in the "worthwhileness" of health and of good posture, and the potentialities for health and good posture inherent in school gymnastics; but school gymnastics, like all other school requirements, are *requirements*. They demand primarily obedience, as does all school work. Obedience to law is a basic virtue. Its inculcation so that it may become a habit is necessary, if any people is to endure. The school is, should be, and must be fundamentally a monarchy. Children are quite incompetent to decide for themselves what or when or how they shall study. In certain matters skillful schoolmasters have devised ways of giving to their pupils a limited degree of initiative and control, but the great questions must always be settled by authority and the great school virtue must always be obedience.

The necessity for the attainment of absolute obedience is dramatically demonstrated by fire experiences in New York schools. During the past years there have been several school fires, any one of which might have resulted in great tragedy but for the perfect self-control exercised by teachers and pupils and the faithful performance of the fire drill, which forms a part of the school routine. There have been occasions when classes in the upper stories of buildings have been obliged to stand still in rooms suffocatingly full of smoke—standing quietly until their turn should come to go down the stairs. At not one of those occasions has a teacher or a pupil screamed or fainted, or done anything to start a panic that would have resulted in the disorganization of and disaster to all. Nothing but plain, straight obedience could bring about such uniform success under trying circumstances.

The larger the number of individuals and the closer they work together, the greater becomes the necessity of obedience to law.

But there is another virtue which is as important as obedience. It is the virtue related to individual initiative, the will to conquer, reliance upon oneself, leadership among one's fellows, and those habits of conduct that lead the individual to right

action when he is free. This virtue lies in the inclination and the ability to use—not abuse—freedom.

Neither obedience nor the good use of freedom can be taught as lessons to be learned from a book or from the lips of a teacher. They are woven into the tissue of character, and hence must to a considerable extent be learned by experiences under conditions of freedom. In self-directed athletic sports a boy has one of his best opportunities to learn this lesson. I have seen a boy learning what it means to be a "quitter" and what the world thinks of a "quitter" in the finish he made in a gruelling race, or by smoking cigarettes when the team had agreed not to smoke until after the game.

Thus I was led to examine the question of athletics practiced by the school boys of New York City. I found that the athletics, carried on by the boys when they could find opportunity, were on the whole unsuited to the space limitations of the city. I did not see how it would be possible ever to restore to New York City boys the space conditions under which these sports had arisen and which are necessary to their proper pursuit. To furnish adequate grounds for the 100,000 boys in New York who are of the baseball age is impossible.

I found that on the whole low moral standards obtained; and that good sportsmanship and honesty were not greatly admired virtues.

I found that too often the big semi-truant was the popular athletic hero and model for the smaller boys.

I found an exceedingly efficient playground system conducted during the summer months and a few evening recreation centers during the remainder of the year, neither of which met the athletic needs of the older boys.

I not only found that as director of physical training I had no voice regarding the after-school athletics of the children, but that with few exceptions the principals of the schools neither controlled nor knew of these activities. I discovered baseball teams, not a single member of which belonged to the school which the team represented.

I found that the Board of Education in its official capacity was not sufficiently interested to consider these things.

The following, then, was the problem:

1. To get control of the situation.

2. To devise forms of athletics that would fit city conditions and that would prove of genuine interest, so that boys would want to pursue them in their free time.

3. To create new and higher ethical standards.

4. To take the leadership away from the big, over-age semi-truant and give it to a better type of boy.

5. To develop a form of administration that would work efficiently with 100,000 boys.

It would have been comparatively easy to devise a plan for procuring adequate grounds, leaders, etc., for a few hundred boys; but here was a general community need—all the boys of the city needed to learn the moral and social lessons already mentioned.

These matters were laid before the Superintendent of Schools, the President and one of the members of the Board of Education, the President of the College of the City of New York, the secretary of the Amateur Athletic Union, the chairman of the advisory committee of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association, and a few business men. These men formed a corporation, they furnished "the sinews of war," and gave the necessary status to the resulting organization —the Public Schools Athletic League of New York City. The use of Madison Square Garden was secured for holding a great set of conventional schoolboy athletic games. Editors of newspapers were interviewed and the plan was explained to them. During the month preceding the games, twenty-six pages of reading matter in the leading New York City journals were devoted to the affairs of the League. One thousand and eight boys took part in the games. Altogether, the meet was a success. Prestige for the organization was thus secured, rendering authority unnecessary. In the period between 1903 and 1907 a sum of about $40,000 has been procured from private sources for the conduct of the work, and an amount of $500,000 has been given by the city for the purchase and equipment of athletic fields. The public has become convinced.

New adaptations of old forms of athletics were discovered. Carefully considered scholastic standards, which the boys were

obliged to meet in order to enable them to participate in these athletics, eliminated the semi-truant and elevated the standard of the average boy. Higher moral standards have been developed. The law of the state has been changed so as to permit the Public Schools Athletic League to use the armories in the city. The volunteer co-operation of 410 men—mostly public school teachers—was secured in coaching boys in athletics during after-school hours. The Board of Education gradually took over one piece of work after another, until at the present time the entire direction of these athletics is part of the duty of the director of physical training, and most of the financial support is supplied by the Board of Education. Since the success of the Public Schools Athletic League of New York City has been demonstrated, seventeen other American cities have more or less completely organized similar leagues in their communities.

Instead of forming a special piece of machinery with an independent motor, a social machine was fashioned and gradually geared onto the already existing educational machinery of the city. The work was rendered possible by the co-operation of private philanthropy; but private philanthropy alone could not have created an agency large enough to meet the whole need. During the past year over 30,000 boys took part in the athletics of the Public Schools Athletic League. No private organization could have given that number of boys opportunity to conduct their own athletics. What the league does the boys through their own initiative could not accomplish.

The problem of the girls' activities was as technical as that of the boys, but it needed to be met by a different form of organization. The general conclusion reached resembles that of the boys in this respect, that responsibility is gradually being assumed by the board of education. The employes of the girls' branch, like those of the boys', are now being paid from funds appropriated by the Board of Education, and are under the direction of the board.

The following is another personal experience: Two years ago it was generally admitted that the majority of children who were being delayed in progressing through the grades of the public schools, were retarded because of physical defects,

as, for instance, hypertrophied tonsils, adenoids, defective vision, bad hearing, etc. Definite data on the subject was not available, and there existed no machinery in the Board of Education for the investigation of this or any other subject requiring careful statistical study. There was need for a department of this character.

Here, then, was an opportunity not only to discover authoritatively what bearing the defects of school children have on school progress, but an opportunity to demonstrate the need of a new department under the direction of the Board of Education.

The matter was presented to the superintendent of schools, Dr. William H. Maxwell, who realized the importance of the proposed investigation and promised to afford every facility within his power for carrying the work forward if the required means could be procured. The plan was presented to the directors of the Russell Sage Foundation, the necessary funds were granted, and the investigation was instituted. As a result, the records of 20,000 New York City school children were studied by the Backward Children Investigation.

The first results of the investigation are published in a book entitled "Medical Inspection of Schools," and the complete record of its work is contained in a volume entitled "Laggards in Our Schools." The statistical study that had been made of the records of school children was included by Dr. Maxwell in his tenth annual report, accompanied by a recommendation made by him for the establishment of a department of investigation.

The investigation is thus far more important in its ultimate results than in its immediate findings as embodied in the two reports referred to—important as those are—because it is hastening the development of an exceedingly necessary work within the Board of Education.

There is need at the present time for wisely directed private philanthropy, for the perfection of governmental machinery. Funds invested in this direction work with extraordinary efficiency. Public officials, in the main, are restricted; they cannot experiment. Many of them are willing and desirous to

avail themselves of the co-operation offered by private philanthropy.

We need permanent private organizations that will blaze the way, educate the public, and secure continuous action on the part of the community. For example, even where a city is doing well with regard to the establishing and maintaining of playgrounds, a permanent local playground association is needed to secure the co-operation of the citizens and to do the numerous things that the official machinery is powerless to do. Private philanthropy must show the way in most of the new adjustments that are needed by most of the people, and it must work through existing official machinery.

We are in the midst of a great wave of interest in matters relating to personal and public health, a wave greater in extent than any that has existed since the period between 1830 and 1840, when there were extensive developments in these directions. The earlier movement, however, partly because of the lack of necessary scientific facts and partly because leadership fell into the hands of cranks, made but little permanent impression. The indications are that the present wave, ere it expends its power, will be able to lift the whole people to a level of more efficient living; but in order to accomplish this result the movement needs the support of private philanthropy to help in permanently adjusting the governmental machinery to the newly-realized requirements.

DISCUSSION

Dr. Fulton—I cannot resist the temptation to take a chairman's privilege and inject a word or two at this point. I consider the main obstacle in the way of public health progress in the United States is the inveterate indifference of the American government and people to statistics. Some time ago a man went with his wife to Germany to take a course in a university. A child was born to them and its birth had to be recorded. If that child had been born in America its birth would not have been recorded. It was necessary in order to record this child's birth in Germany to prove that they were lawfully married. But they had not their marriage certificate with them. There was considerable trouble to relieve that record of the implication that the child was not legitimate. I know a Swiss woman who had children born in this country. They became heirs to legacies in Switzerland, some relatives having died there. The last time I saw them they were unable to establish the facts concerning their birth. This is a matter upon which we must educate the public. Many people here are deeply interested in child labor, and they know that the

whole problem of child labor turns on the employment certificate, and there is no certainty of birth. There is no state in the Union that registers anything like eighty per cent. of the births. This is a great evil in the matter of statistics in school and in delinquency. The blind want you to take note the moment children get sore eyes. But when children get sore eyes it is a rather late day to take account of their arrival as citizens. I think a child's birth is not too early a date for that fact to be recorded. In 1883 the government of the United States signed an official obligation with Italy in which it is stipulated that in the case of the death of an Italian in the United States, or an American citizen in Italy, either country would send the data to the consul of the country to which the deceased belonged. That occurred in 1883, and our government has been a defaulter ever since. No complaint has been made that the Kingdom of Italy has failed. But there is hardly a consul of the United States who can find death certificates. This is a great obstacle to future progress in medicine. It seems to me we ought at least to record the deaths of the Italians. There are only seventeen states which register deaths.

MILK FOR BABES

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS BY GEORGE W. GOLER, M. D., ROCHESTER, N. Y.

(Illustrated by Stereopticon Pictures.)

In the early days of our American civilization, under the primitive conditions that surrounded the lives of our foremothers, the babies who were to grow up to fight the battle for commercial supremacy were suckled at the breast. As the primitive conditions under which our ancestors then lived grew more complex, as cities became more thickly populated, as men were forced from the field into the factory, and as in many cases the women, the mothers, were compelled by an economic necessity to move from the home into the shop, to toil with their husbands, many of them could not and many would not nurse their babies if they had any and the children became parasites on the cow.

As the udder of the cow, not the breast of the mother, now nourishes the children of America during a part of the period of the first year of life in more than half the cases, is it not important that we should guard the health of those animals and the milk they produce with the greatest care? Cows' milk is the best artificial substitute for the human breast that has yet been found. Shall we furnish cow's milk clean, or shall we

cook it with all its filth and manure, and call it Pasteurized? Or shall we compel the men who care for the cows and who ship milk, the railroads who handle milk, the men who store and sell milk, to handle, ship, store and sell this food of our children in a cleanly manner? To cool it, and keep it cold, to be responsible for its cleanliness, its freedom from disease, especially typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and that most deadly of all diseases, tuberculosis? Shall we compel those men who hold the lives, and what is more than all else, the health of our children in their hands, responsible for the freedom of their herds from tuberculosis, and shall we not compel an annual tuberculin test for all cattle, so that we may know them to be free from tuberculosis?

If we are to be a real nation, we must be a strong nation, and our strength must lie in the physical, moral and intellectual robustness of our children.

Let us build hospitals and sanatoria to safeguard the weak, but let us also, not forgetting our physically best born, protect their health and their lives by protecting their most necessary food.

DIET FOR TUBERCULOUS PATIENTS

BY HERBERT MAXON KING, M. D., PHYSICIAN IN CHIEF, LOOMIS SANATORIUM, LIBERTY, SULLIVAN COUNTY, N. Y.

(*Abstract.*)

A dietary for the consumptive must be constructed with a view, first, to therapeutic efficiency, and second, to economy. Advanced, acute and complicated cases of the disease naturally require special diets constructed according to the conditions which must be met in special cases. It is in such phases of the disease, requiring, as the case may be, administration of nourishment at short intervals and in small quantities, that eggs, milk, beef-juice and other easily assimilable and more or less concentrated forms of protein can be best employed. In such cases it is obvious that the cost of the dietary is necessarily greater. With the ambulant consumptive, able to be

up and about, without fever or complication requiring special alimentation, a mixed diet constructed with reference to standard proportions of proteins, fats and carbohydrates respectively, best serves the purpose. Eggs and milk here occupy a far less important place in the dietary and where used, as has been the case in the past, to force a "stuffing process" may be actually harmful.

The food requirements in cases of quiescent tuberculosis should not differ materially from those in health as to proportions of chemical constituents, although a slightly larger than normal standard can be safely employed where there is much emaciation. We have demonstrated in the annex of the Loomis Sanatorium that a standard diet for the tuberculous invalid from the working classes consisting of a total of 3,200 calories, of which 130 grammes shall be protein, best fulfills the purpose. Weight gains are satisfactory and all that diet can do towards bringing about recovery can be accomplished with such a dietary, the cost of which need not exceed an average of 30 cents per patient per day for the adult. Women require less nourishment than men, weight for weight—persons above thirty years of age less than during or just succeeding adolescence. Patients from the working classes as a rule require a more bulky dietary and a slightly larger protein constituent than is the case with the leisure classes, all other conditions being equal. This latter fact is probably due to dietetic habits acquired before the onset of the disease by occupation necessities. A mistake has been made in the past by assuming that the loss in weight and general inanition observed as one of the most frequent and early manifestations of tuberculosis are due in the first instance to an insufficient amount or a poor quality of food, whereas it is highly probable that in the vast majority of cases there has been an amply sufficient dietary. The inanition observed is the result rather of the toxemia of the disease and until this is controlled the functions of digestion and assimilation are insufficient to supply the body with adequate nutrition, no matter how abundant or scientifically constructed may be the dietary.

NUTRITION PROBLEMS IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

BY C. F. LANGWORTHY, EXPERT IN NUTRITION, OFFICE OF EXPERIMENT STATIONS, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

(*Abstract.*)

The public institution is a large family and its problems of food, shelter, and sanitation are those of the ordinary family, though the scale is very different.

Considering all the types of institutions which may be fairly included under the grouping, the total number of persons in public institutions is very large and their proper feeding is a matter of great importance from the standpoint of the comfort and welfare of the institution population and of the proper expenditure of public funds.

For the last twenty years, or more, nutrition investigations have been carried on as a part of the regular work of the Office of Experiment Stations of the Department of Agriculture and as a result of these and similar enterprises a large amount of information is available which can be applied to the solution of the institution food problems. With the aid of such data it is as possible for the trained nutrition expert to pass upon the diet of an institution as it is for a public accountant to pass on the business affairs of any firm, and the information gained is as useful in the one case as in the other. As an instance of the value of such nutrition studies may be mentioned the extended work carried on in the New York State Hospitals for the Insane by Professor W. O. Atwater, which made possible an improved, more rational, and attractive diet with a considerable saving of public funds. Similar investigations under Professor Atwater's direction at the U. S. Government Hospital for the Insane at Washington, D. C., furnished data regarding many questions of institution management. Other investigations of this character might be cited.

It is often possible by means of nutrition investigations in public institutions to secure facts of value in the discussion of general food problems, and with a view to collecting information regarding the food consumption of aged persons and of children, topics on which data are rather limited, investigations

were carried on by the writer and his associates in three homes for the aged and two orphan asylums in Baltimore, and one home for the aged and one orphan asylum in Philadelphia.

From the information collected and other similar statistics the factor 0.9 has been fixed upon as representing the average food requirement of persons in old age as compared with a man during the period of full vigor and engaged in moderate work, and for extreme old age the factor 0.7 to 0.8. In other words, an aged person would require 90 grams protein and in round numbers, 3,100 calories of energy per day in comparison with the dietary standard for a man in full vigor, namely, 100 grams protein and 3,500 calories of energy in the food eaten.

From the available data some general suggestions may be made regarding institution diet. Whatever the circumstances, the food should be of good quality, wholesome, and sufficient in amount to supply the protein and the energy which commonly accepted dietary standards demand. Undue waste should be avoided and the cost of food should be reasonably in proportion to the income. Menus should be so planned that monotony may be avoided, which may be easily accomplished by having a rotation of two weeks or more. Due regard should always be paid to the previously acquired food habits of the individual or group under consideration.

As much attention should always be paid to table furnishings as is consistent with the resources of the institution, as there is a sound physiological reason for providing attractive as well as palatable and nutritious food. A great deal is possible in such directions if the architect who plans an institution is thoroughly conversant with the best standards and will provide dining-rooms which are well lighted, well ventilated, and so constructed that they may easily be kept scrupulously clean. Use of impervious plaster or other wall surface, and of similar materials for flooring, the avoidance of sharp corners and other places where dust may lodge, are important factors which should receive consideration. That it is not unreasonable to expect attention to such matters is shown by the fact that they are given due consideration in colleges and universities which offer home economics courses.

In agricultural colleges the score card has for a long time done good service in teaching students to judge horses, cattle and other live stock. As perhaps every one knows, such a score card takes into account the different points of excellence in an animal and the maximum which each point should receive in fixing upon general excellence. The score card idea has been applied to dairies, and its application to many other lines of activity has been proposed. It would seem that the use of such a score card in different departments of public institutions would be particularly valuable, as it would give to the expert who is studying institution conditions or to the institution management material for judging relative conditions in different institutions. Such a score card might take into account the quality of food, 25 points; adequacy of food, 25 points; economy of food, i. e., cost as compared with income, 20 points; cooking, serving, and palatability, 10 points; cleanliness in the kitchen and dining-room, 10 points; and attractiveness of diet, 10 points; making a total of 100. The rating of each item, and the total rating in comparison with the maximum value, will at least give an indication of food conditions.

THE WRONG OF SENDING ADVANCED CONSUMPTIVES AWAY FROM HOME

BY REV. DR. W. S. FRIEDMAN, DENVER, PRESIDENT OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION OF COLORADO

All physicians unite in insisting that sunshine, pure, dry air and existence in the open are life's elixir for the consumptive. The United States Weather Bureau reports that there are few sections that compare with Colorado in its almost perpetual sunshine. Denver enjoys 305 cloudless days during the year; its average annual rainfall is fourteen inches, while in the Atlantic cities the sun is obscured more than half of the year, and the precipitation is forty-nine inches.

The mile-high altitude impels deeper inspiration—20 per cent. more of air must be inhaled to obtain the requisite amount of oxygen—quickens sluggish circulation, stimulates impaired nutrition, and consequently upbuilds the entire system. The examination of Colorado herds of cattle shows 5 per cent. tubercular implantation in comparison with 40 per cent. in eastern herds.

The proverbial disagreement between doctors is at an end in Colorado so far as climate is concerned, for many of the physicians are living evidences of its efficacy. One thousand six hundred and fifty-three inquiry letters were mailed to the physicians in Colorado, and the replies proved that 32.7 per cent. of them had come to Colorado because they themselves, or some member of the family, were afflicted with tuberculosis; 67.4 per cent. were apparently cured; in 14 per cent. the disease was arrested; 14 per cent. were improved; 2.4 per cent. showed lack of improvement.

We are not surprised, therefore, to read the statement of Dr. William N. Beggs of Denver, that 50,000 of Denver's 200,000 inhabitants live there because of their health or the health of some member of the family, and that there are 20,000 "cured consumptives" in Denver, whose recovery is due almost entirely to climate. And the same condition prevails throughout the Rocky Mountain region.

No wonder, then, that there are those who claim that all tuberculous sufferers, in whatever stage of the disease, shall have a chance to go to Colorado or some similar resort and shall be given the benefit of the doubt. If they had a chance, or if there were a doubt, the appeal would be justified. But the science of medicine has demonstrated that in tuberculosis, as in all diseases, there are progressive stages when death is certain. Advanced tubercular patients, with complications of the heart, arteries or kidneys, or who are afflicted with diabetes, or who have a highly excitable temperament, or who suffer from acute malnutrition, should not leave home any more than those with phthisis florida or acute miliary tuberculosis. It is malpractice on the part of physicians to send them away.

Every humanitarian impulse urges such patients to remain at home. It is an injustice and an irreparable injury to the sufferers to send them away. The sudden change from sea level to a highly rarefied atmosphere and the wearing hardships of travel aggravate complications and hasten death. Misery loves the company of wife and child and friends, and the sick-poor feel the pangs of separation as keenly, at least, as luxury does. The privilege of passing the closing hours with loved ones at the bedside is a consolation all the more precious to those for whom life offers nothing else. Colorado or any other health resort as a last chance, is a lost chance.

Besides, "incurables" wield a dangerous influence over curables. To place these ill-starred victims of the valley of the shadow of death in hourly contact with those whose hearts beat high with hope is a pitiable attempt at performing service. The constant effect of depressing mental suggestion is fatal to recovery. It often results in turning the curable into an incurable. In addition, the advanced consumptive who knows that his case is hopeless not infrequently becomes a menace to the community, careless of himself and of the welfare of others.

Then, again, a flagrant wrong is perpetrated upon health resorts by sending advanced consumptives away from home. It is sentimentalism run wild, philanthropy perverted.

Of $6,173.79, which one Denver organization collected during 1908, $4,500, or about 75 per cent. of the funds were expended for consumptives. Of 355 new applicants, 208 were tubercular and received assistance.

A serious injury is done thousands of consumptives in the first and second stages who might, with benefit, go to the Rocky Mountain region or some other health resort but who are discouraged because of reports which come to them from hopeless cases.

It is an injury to the health resorts. We dare not, for example, make a plague spot of Colorado, the paradise of the curable consumptive, nor invite municipal or state restrictive measures which may bar the curable with the incurable. Since Colorado cannot welcome the world's consumptive millions, it is the imperative duty of each state or commonwealth to care for its own incurables.

If it is folly to advise the wealthy advanced consumptive to leave home, it is criminal to send away the penniless, who are unable to work and who necessarily must drag out their declining days in pitiable poverty and anguish of soul.

Justice demands that every city, county or state that sends away the poor consumptive should provide him the means wherewith to live, should guarantee that he does not become a public charge, a burden or danger to the community.

If the consumptive leaves home on his own account, every city or county or state should be notified that he will be returned unless he be suitably provided for.

Justice and every humane impulse demand that it be made known throughout our land that, while Colorado offers exceptional advantages to tens of thousands of consumptives, the advanced consumptive who goes to Colorado commits an irretrievable error.

SAFEGUARDING THE SALE OF NARCOTICS

BY WILLIAM JAY SCHIEFFELIN, NEW YORK

Before the National Food and Drugs Act of June 30, 1906, became a law, persons buying patent or proprietary medicines ran the risk of contracting a drug habit innocently and ignorantly because many of the secret nostrums contained large proportions of alcohol, while some of them contained morphine or cocaine.

The most profitable were those which created an appetite and thus became "repeaters."

The requirement of the Federal law—that the labels on such medicines must state the proportion of alcohol or habit-forming drugs they contain—has gone far toward preventing people from ignorantly becoming victims of a drug habit. As a result the sales of some of the most notorious of the nostrums have greatly declined and in some cases have entirely ceased.

A more difficult problem is that of restricting the sale of

these drugs, especially of cocaine, to their medicinal uses and making it unlawful to sell them to the public.

Cocaine is an alkaloid made from coca leaves, which grow in Bolivia and Peru. One hundred pounds of the leaves yield about ten ounces of cocaine. The estimated annual consumption of cocaine in the United States is one hundred and fifty thousand ounces. The present price to retail druggists is $2.75 per ounce. There are five American manufacturers. The process is complicated and requires a considerable plant. There is no duty on coca leaves and there is a 25 per cent. ad valorem duty on cocaine, which amounts to about fifty cents an ounce.

Cocaine is used in minor surgery as a local anesthetic; it is so valuable in the treatment of the eye, the ear and throat and in dentistry, that to prohibit its use would cause great hardship and suffering. On the other hand, it is beyond question that at least half of the cocaine consumed in this country is used by habitues as an indulgence.

Most of these unfortunate people live in the "red light" districts; many of them are women and the habit is especially prevalent among negroes. Occasionally an actor of distinction or a physician falls a victim. Several cases have been reported where groups of school children have been taught to use the drug.

The usual mode of taking it is snuffing it up the nose in powder form or in solution. The effect is to clear the head, produce an exalted feeling of well-being and, it is said, banish feelings of shame, but it is not a sexual stimulant like alcohol. The reaction is distressing and the desire to again resort to the snuffing is intense. Those long indulging in the habit acquire a constant running from the nose; a chronic catarrh; their nervous systems become affected and in many cases they become emaciated.

It is difficult to remove the craving; the treatments usually successful in curing the alcohol and morphine habits are not as often successful with cocaine. The surest way is to cut off all supplies of the drug and to change the environment. Two young men who were seriously addicted to the habit were sent to jail for

six months for stealing cocaine. On their discharge they both expressed thankfulness for their punishment as the craving had disappeared because the supply of cocaine had been cut off.

A number of the states have passed stringent laws to restrict the sale of cocaine. In New York the manufacturer and wholesaler must keep a record of all they sell and to whom they sell it, noting the date, the quantity and the name of the clerk who made the sale—and none can be sold except to a licensed pharmacist or physician or dentist, the purpose of this law being to trace all the cocaine sold and to restrict it to legitimate uses. But the man who wishes to retail it to habitues and to conceal his source of supply and the extent of his sales can import the cocaine from London or Hamburg.

The commissioner of police of New York City has written to the chairman of the finance committee of the United States senate asking that a prohibitory duty be imposed on cocaine, as follows:

The illicit traffic in cocaine flourishes to such an extent in New York City and does so much harm that I venture to bring a few facts to your attention, in the hope that action may be taken in the matter in connection with the new tariff bill which is under consideration in the senate.

The New York State laws would be infinitely more effective in preventing illegal sales of cocaine if by means of Federal laws we could trace the cocaine from the time of its manufacture down to the time of its sale by the retailers. To accomplish this it would probably be necessary to place an internal revenue tax upon cocaine and to impose upon imported cocaine a duty that would be practically prohibitive. In this way all the cocaine would come from domestic sources and could be traced.

It is, of course, impossible to state just how far the cocaine habit has spread. The investigation that we have carried on seems to show that it is widespread and very insidious. We find, for instance, that of three of the largest reputable druggists in this city, one sells from one to two ounces; another three-quarters of an ounce a month, and the third (who has a large number of nose and throat specialists for customers) approximately three ounces a month. From one to three ounces a month, therefore, is about the sale of cocaine from a large drug store which is needed for legitimate medical purposes.

A druggist in the lower part of this city purchased from a wholesaler from January 3 to January 7, 1909, 14⅞ ounces. Another druggist in Brooklyn purchased from a wholesaler during twenty days 60$\frac{1}{16}$ ounces. These purchases were one-sixteenth of an ounce bottles. Another druggist on the upper East Side purchased during twenty-three days of January 64 ounces. This was the regular rate

at which these druggists bought cocaine, and the comparison with the amount used by legitimate druggists as shown above is illuminating. The investigations that we have carried on have resulted so far in our placing sixty-three drug stores on the list as suspicious of the illicit sale of cocaine.

Druggists, according to law, must not sell cocaine except on physicians' certificates. We have come across a number of instances where doctors give prescriptions for cocaine for apparently other than sound medical reasons, for 25 cents a prescription. Besides this, some doctors dispense cocaine themselves. One who is now under investigation purchased from one wholesaler from January 2d to April 7th, inclusive, 592 ounces of cocaine. A general practitioner, I am told, with a fair practice, might use one-fiftieth of an ounce a month, and a nose and throat specialist might use one ounce a month. This cocaine "specialist" mentioned above, on one day, February 26th, purchased from one wholesaler twenty-three ounces of cocaine, an amount that would last 1,100 general practitioners an entire month.

I do not need to point out the well-known facts as to the rapidity with which this habit is acquired and as to its disastrous effects. These effects are known to everyone. I do wish to call your attention to the great illicit sale of cocaine that goes on and to point out that the police authorities throughout the country would be helped if laws could be enacted which would limit the sale and make it possible to trace every grain of cocaine from manufacturer to consumer.

Cocaine, when used legitimately, is applied in minute quantities, a few drops of a 2 per cent or 4 per cent solution sufficing. There are thirty thousand dentists in the United States who use an ounce a year in their practice, and the surgeons and oculists may require another thirty thousand ounces. The cost of the cocaine used in an operation is less than one cent, therefore an increase in price would work but slight hardship. Therefore a duty of 5 cents a pound on coca leaves should be imposed so that the quantity of raw material used could be known, and there should be a prohibitory tariff on cocaine. This would confine the legitimate sales to the American product, which should be sold under Federal regulations, enforced through an internal revenue tax and a license restricting its sale to physicians (it is very doubtful whether the few cases where the reputable physician prescribes it are sufficiently important to offset the abuse of selling prescriptions by unprincipled men who have secured physicians' licenses. In other words, the physicians, surgeons and dentists could apply cocaine but not supply it).*

*The tariff law of 1909 imposes a duty of five cents per pound on coca leaves and $1.50 per ounce on cocaine.

If these measures are adopted the sale of cocaine in the United States will be cut in half, the drug habitues will be driven to secure smuggled cocaine, which can be identified by the absence of the revenue stamp and the name of the American maker, the abuse of the drug will be checked and the hands of the druggist will be clean.

Immigrants

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY MISS JANE ADDAMS, HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO, CHAIRMAN

This is the first year that the National Conference has had a Committee on Immigrants, so my report naturally will be brief. I should like, however, to supplement this brief or almost non-existing report with a few general reflections.

May we not believe that when the philosophical historian, who is sure to come along in the course of time, considers the quarter of the century in which we are now living, he will observe that it was singular that the most remarkable phenomenon which America presented was so little noticed, and made so little impression upon the national life. He will say that although a million people—aliens—came every year into America, we paid almost no attention to them. We seemed to be inhibited, so that we did not even perceive these immigrants, did not even know that they were here, or whence they came or whither they were going.

Why is it that we see so little of them? We are all willing to go to Europe in order to see new customs and get new ideas. We read all sorts of things about the Old World and its people, yet we have almost no intercourse with the immigrants who are all about us. This may be because we have inherited something a little insular from our English ancestors, or it may be due to the blindness of the man who called his brother a fool.

We talk about the congestion of our cities, and say the immigrants are adding to that congestion every year. But what do we do to help them out into the country? At one of the section meetings it was said that immigrants sent out into the country by existing employment agencies have suffered such bitter hardships that when they get back to the city they are firmly resolved that whatever else may happen to them they

will never again look for a job in the country. Nothing could add to our urban congestion more than such a sentiment among the thousands of immigrants, yet we do very little to prevent this sort of thing. Miss Abbott, the superintendent of the Society for the Protection of Immigrants in Chicago, told several grisly tales. One was of fifty-three immigrants sent to Arkansas to work, who found there only work for fifteen. The unemployed walked back to Chicago, with the exception of two, who were shot in St. Louis trying to board a train. The survivors made up their minds to work in Chicago and never again go to Arkansas or any other country place.

We hear a great deal about the need for better recreation in our cities, a more spontaneous recreation. Nothing affords such a reservoir of public festivals as the large colonies of immigrants in every city. Nothing is more beautiful than the gay celebrations in the Italian quarter in Chicago on Garibaldi's birthday. Nothing is brighter than the march of the mutual benefit societies along the streets. Each nationality has its own methods of celebrating its anniversaries. In the Bohemian districts the Slavophiles fill the crowded theater. Young Russians preach social righteousness on the street corner. The Greeks parade, blowing their pipes and flinging their banners in honor of their immortal heroes over our dirty Chicago streets just as they flung them out over the Acropolis. Nor is this display altogether gaudy. It is full of charm and reminiscence, a sort of historic pageant which they themselves apparently do not as yet understand. We say a great deal about municipal art, and here we have the beginnings, the nuclei of the best kind of municipal art of every description, for art is the attempt to put into beautiful and permanent form the emotions which have uplifted the human race from time immemorial, that a man may get his connection with the past, and be free from the sense of isolation and hardship.

In this discussion we were warned not to go into the vexed problem of immigration, but to keep to the subject of immigrants—how far they might be helped by the people represented in this Conference and by the societies and agencies here gathered, as well as how far on the other hand they might be of benefit to us. We have called in two professors from colleges,

one a professor of economics, and the other a professor of philosophy. Charity is continually going out into new fields, and other agencies are constantly coming into the charitable field. It has been pointed out that the reform of the poor laws came about not through efforts of the philanthropists, as would have been natural, but through the efforts of the economists, and that the building up of factory legislation came about not through the efforts of the economists as might have been expected, but through the efforts of the philanthropists. We are continually mixed up in this human tangle, all engaged in weeding the same neglected garden.

I will ask Professor Jeremiah Jenks of Cornell University to speak to us upon some racial problems presented by recent immigration. Prof. Jenks is a member of the Congressional Commission looking into this matter of immigration. The commission consists of three senators and three members of the House of Representatives and three other members who were appointed by the president. Mr. Jenks has been in charge of the most detailed investigation which this commission has undertaken. We cannot expect that he will tell us what is in his report, but I am sure a man who has given such close attention to this subject for two years will have a message of great importance to us.

THE RACIAL PROBLEM IN IMMIGRATION

BY JEREMIAH W. JENKS, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Miss Addams has been good enough to call attention to the fact that it is not possible for me to attempt to give you any detailed results of any study by the Immigration Commission of the question of immigration. The report has not yet been made to Congress. I have been trying during the last two years not to make up my mind, because, officially at any rate, whatever it might be otherwise, I am not allowed to have any mind to make up. So for some months still I am trying to be as open-minded as I can be on the subject of immigration, and devote myself to asking questions.

What I shall have to say tonight is mostly in the form of questions. What is this problem of the immigrant? How complicated a problem is it? What are the specific questions we are trying to solve?

Up to the present time we have attempted to sift the immigrants as they come in through Ellis Island, on an individualistic basis. Our laws say that if a person is defective, insane, or diseased, or has committed a crime, he shall not be allowed to come. Still further, in order that we may protect ourselves against those who might be an economic burden to this country, if a person is liable to become a public charge he is not admitted. The principle of selection is personal.

Any one who has attempted to do any work of this kind will realize how extremely difficult it is to select individuals in this way. Is there any way in which a person can detect a criminal whom he sees coming toward him? That is what the immigration officials have to do as these people pass them in line, several every minute. The immigration official is expected to detect disease at a glance, and to tell whether a man is capable to earn his living.

But the question put before me tonight is entirely different. It is the racial problem of immigration. You are all aware of the fact that there is one race that the lawgivers of the United States have thought it wise to exclude as a race. With the single exception of the Chinese, and of late, under special agreement with their government, of the Japanese, we do not attempt to make any discrimination by race.

What are the racial characteristics, if any, by which we might venture to exclude or give preference to certain classes of immigrants? In Canada there is a certain bonus system in vogue to encourage the bringing to that country of desirable immigrants. For every ticket the steamship companies sell to residents of Great Britain the agents receive a bonus of one pound. For every resident of Germany, Norway and Sweden and a few other selected places they receive the same. But for the residents of Italy and the Slav countries there is no bonus given. In that way, by giving encouragement to those from Great Britain and northern Europe in contradistinction to those from southern Europe, Canada is making a racial discrimina-

tion, and excluding people on that score. We have done nothing of that kind except in the one instance of the Chinese.

Most of us have something like a race feeling; or, if you wish to put it in another way, we have a racial prejudice. The basis of that is perhaps very hard to find. Persons who are like us we assume to be all right, and we approve of them. Persons who are unlike us we disapprove of, and are likely to consider inferior. You know all of us are rather inclined to think as highly of ourselves as we ought. If I find a person who looks like me, it is something of a distinction for that person, and when I say, "me," I am referring to each one of us individually. How proud most of us are of being Anglo-Saxons! Anybody who has come from Great Britain or anybody who was born in New England must be particularly good, because we came from there. Any one who belongs to the Caucasian race is probably all right. If the skin of a person is of a different color, for instance yellow, he is different, and we at once assume that because he is different he is not so good as we, that he is in some way or other inferior. And if the shade is a little darker, the assumption is that he is still more inferior. Whether there is any reason for that or not, I question. I am inclined to think, so far as most people are concerned, that this racial feeling is simply an unconscious feeling which we have never reasoned out.

I will not venture an opinion as to whether there may not be certain races that are inferior to other races. That is one of the problems that the Immigration Commission has before it —to discover some test to show whether some may be better fitted for American citizenship than others, and if so, why, and in what way?

I may perhaps recall in a word a statement made to me by one of our agents who had been investigating a certain class or race of immigrants coming into this country. This race of people called themselves Americans. Some of them had been here nearly a generation, but they said they found it practically impossible to get into social touch with the native Americans, unless some of their young men won the affection of an American girl. In such a case the young man was accepted, but the rest of his race couldn't get into

touch with the Americans. And yet they wanted to be Americans. Is there any reason for such a feeling of prejudice? This investigator had been questioning those who had been here for a generation. I am limiting the word "American" to those who have been here two generations. They could give no reasons, except "I don't like those people." When the members of this foreign race were asked if they could see any reason why they were not received, they on their part could see no reason. They said, "When we go into business relations with Americans as merchants, then they accept us as though we were their equals, but otherwise never."

I wish to emphasize this matter of race feeling. It is foolish for us to yield to this feeling, and to assume that people who are like us in any particular are all right, and that people who are different from us are inferior. Is it not true that we ought in many cases to associate with people who are different from ourselves, because from those people we are likely to learn most? What is the advantage of foreign travel? It is to put ourselves into surroundings that are different from those to which we have been accustomed, because we learn from that difference. So there are advantages that will come from people who are different from us, and the greater the difference, the greater the advantage.

So, in speaking of this question of race as related to the immigrant, we should see if we cannot in many cases learn from their differences. We often do not have that sympathy for the immigrant that we ought to have. We sympathize with those who are like us because we can understand their feelings better. There is a certain disadvantage to ourselves as well as to the immigrants, when they are of a different race and very decidedly unlike us. There is not the sympathetic touch that is desirable if we are going to weld them together into one citizenship. There is also a lack of common understanding, which I think is extremely unfortunate. Any one who has thought about the matter knows that a large percentage of all the law suits in our courts come, not from the wilful wrong that one person has done to another, but from some misunderstanding. Nine-tenths of the quarrels come from the fact that we have been careless and misunderstood something that

has been said, or misinterpreted some act that we have seen, and feeling wronged, we did something that was misunderstood in turn. People like ourselves, if brought up under different conditions and employing a different language, assume another attitude toward life. And we are more likely to have these misunderstandings with our immigrants than with our fellows.

Out of this difference grows also a lack of harmonious co-operation such as is desirable in our citizenship. While therefore we realize that there are practical benefits which come from these racial differences, there are also very practical difficulties which we must overcome. The Immigration Commission has attempted to get some data which will enable us to draw some positive conclusions. Can we test the relative economic business efficiency of these different races? We have been trying to do that. We have taken thousands of schedules in different parts of the country of men who have been employed in different lines of industry, and compared the German with the Slav and then with the English, the American, the Chinese and the Japanese. We wish to see which race is the most valuable along those lines.

We are also testing these races in the different sections of the country to see how far one race will promote the welfare of this country more than another, from their standard of living. We wish to test them along physical lines; and we have very elaborate statistics taken in a number of our larger hospitals, that we may see the relative ratio of the susceptibility to disease, and the relative power of resistance of disease of the different races.

But it must not be assumed that that is the only thing, important as is the health and business skill of the people. Any one who has observed, even in a small way, the different classes of people that come into this country, knows that some are very much inclined toward making the best possible use of our schools, while others make no attempt whatever to get into touch with our educational system. In one locality which was visited, every member of one race was thoroughly thrifty, well-to-do, trained in the schools, and they resented the idea that they were not Americans. They were not willing to be considered as immigrants. They had been here fifteen to twenty years. In that

same locality were members of another race who practically sent none of their children to school, although the adults had been here from ten to twenty years. They could hardly speak our language, could not carry on a conversation. There is a difference in races as regards their attitude toward education, and it is worth while to see what that difference is.

Then also as regards the question of crime. There are many harsh judgments made because the fact is known that here and there crime has been committed by people of a certain nationality, and the people assume that practically all of its members are criminals, when the fact is that few of that race commit crimes, and the rest are thrifty, law-abiding citizens. But there is a test. If we take ten or fifteen different nationalities, we may find that some are more inclined toward crime than others, and that some are inclined toward serious crime while the crimes of others perhaps are almost unintentional, committed merely because our customs and laws are different from those under which they have lived. So also in regard to the congestion of the immigrant population. Do all the various races act the same as regards the way they crowd into cities? And how does that affect sanitary conditions? If one race is strongly inclined toward overcrowding, and another race has no such inclination, we shall have to employ different methods for the different races.

One might go on almost indefinitely with these questions. Take the question of the fecundity of women of different races. Is it usual for one race to have five children in a family on an average, and for another to have only two? If so, this fact may affect profoundly the future of our country. It might be that that factor would be a sufficient reason why certain nationalities should be encouraged and others discouraged.

We must consider also assimilation. A gentleman said the other day that we ought to stop all immigration for twenty years and assimilate those that we already have. If the races differ in their readiness to assimilate to Americans, that is important. But what do we mean by assimilation? Do we mean that all these people will take the ideas that our fathers had or the ideas that we have now? Or do we mean that in some way or other we wish to bring the races into harmony, they

taking our ideas in part and we taking in part their ideas, thus perhaps producing a new civilization that shall be better than anything they or we had before? This question of getting together the various races into some sort of harmonious action with ourselves is an important one.

There comes also the vexed question of intermarriage. There is a decided difference among the races in that regard. Some races intermarry readily with one another, and also with the Americans. Others practically never intermarry with any of the other races or with Americans. Ought we to discuss the question as to whether we shall encourage or discourage intermarriage, and if so, how? Is it better for us to encourage those to come here who readily intermarry one with the other and with the Americans? Or, is it better to encourage the others? This is an open question, but it is important that we study it thoroughly, and know what the facts are, and be in a position to decide what course of action should be taken.

Another very subtle matter and an extremely difficult one is sanitation. A gentleman who spoke at the morning meeting said that certain classes of population in our great cities, owing to the overcrowded unsanitary conditions in which they live, were deteriorating physically; that the children were not now of the same sturdy type as their fathers. On the other hand, in some instances children born here of other races are taller, heavier, stronger, and apparently better developed than their fathers were in the countries from which they came. You may find on adjoining streets some races that seem to be progressing physically and others that seem to be deteriorating physically, where both are living under the same conditions. It is in part due to the differing conditions in which they lived in their own country. May it not also be due in part to differing characteristics of the races? That is a question that needs to be tested, and one which we are endeavoring to answer. We are taking measurements by the thousands of children of various ages, those who have lately come, those who have been born here, those whose parents have been here a number of years and those whose parents were born here. We want to find out what the physical effect is of coming into the American environment, and whether that effect is the same for all races, or whether it differs

in different races, as it seems to; whether, if these races come together into American environment and put themselves under similar conditions, the effect of this environment may bring these widely differing races physically into assimilation. I think we can see how extremely complicated these racial matters are, and how extremely important it is that we set aside racial prejudice in order that we may study in an impartial spirit with a view to finding out what will be the best solution for our country of our immigration problem and how it can be best regulated by law.

When the facts are clearly established, we have then to answer the further question whether we shall admit or exclude or make a distinction among the races. Whatever the decision may be, we have the extremely difficult question of how we can make legislation and enforce legislation that shall do justice to all and inflict no needless suffering.

THE ADJUSTMENT OF OUR INDUSTRY TO SURPLUS AND UNSKILLED LABOR

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE H. MEAD, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

There are two sides of this question to which I wish to refer this evening. One is that we fail to recognize the enormous value which the immigrant has been to us from the industrial point of view, and second, that the immigrant has not come to America simply because there has been an opening here, a place in which he can do better than he did in the home country, but that in a very large sense the immigrant has been brought to this country to do our work for us. I was deeply impressed with this point of view, and the lack of sympathy with it, when I undertook to help some friends to raise money for an institution that was working among immigrants in Chicago in connection with one of Chicago's greatest industries, an industry which would have been absolutely impossible without the immigrants who came to do the dirty work. I was assured that the business men of the city had absolutely

no feeling of responsibility to the immigrant, or the sense of debt which Chicago owes to the immigrant. The attitude of the Chicago business man is "We have given them the opportunity to come here, we have thrown the doors open to them, they have their chance to take advantage of higher wages which America pays to the downtrodden population of Europe. They have come, and now if things haven't gone well with them it is their affair." That is an attitude which, it seems to me, is entirely unjust. We can not simply turn upon the immigrant and put him under a microscope, as the immigration commission is doing, and ask how he is built and what he is going to do. We must recognize the enormous responsibility we have to these immigrants who have made possible the industrial development which has taken place in America in the last fifty years.

There was a time when the immigrant came and took possession of our soil, as we have done ourselves. We are all immigrants, as Mr. Dooley has said. The difference is that some came in the Mayflower and others came in later ships. Germans and Scandinavians came and took possession of the soil—the Scandinavians in the northwest and the Germans in the middle west—and they became the backbone of that part of the country, its intelligence and its morals. The Irish came and did our work—certain types of work—and did it very well. Then there came a time when it was necessary that a great deal of work should be done at very low wages. This was necessary for the development of our industries. The numbers that came then and since have been due to the invitation which this industry has offered to them. All the tremendous industries we have at the present time; the pushing of the mines in Pennsylvania, the pushing of the great steel and iron industries, the work of the stockyards and of the railroads, have brought these people across the water. Into this work has gone the life blood of these people and we must meet the responsibilities we owe them.

Every ship that comes in and drops off immigrants at Ellis Island is dropping off what represents potential wealth, workmen who are coming to increase our wealth and give us means of further production. They come because there is a demand for them. Many industries have sent their agents abroad to induce them to come. Transportation companies have spread their

advertisements all over Europe to induce men to come, more than ought to be encouraged.

These immigrants are exploited by employment agencies, and even by the companies which employ them. They are employed, then discharged and employed over again that they may pay again and again for the same job. Is it fair now to turn on the immigrant and ask whether he is a worthy person to be in this country? Is it fair to think of him simply as a person whom we have rescued from Old World tyranny and to whom we have given political freedom? Must we not consider our responsibility to him in the industrial situation into which he has come, and which he has helped to make possible?

There is one American institution that will do more for the assimilation of this foreign population than any other means, and that is the public school. The question is whether the school is meeting the problem of the immigrant. It is not simply a question of whether the immigrant is willing to go into our school, but whether the school is willing to adapt itself to this essential part of the community. The immigrant has not simply made himself a part of us, but we have made the immigrant a part of us, because we have wanted him to come and help us pile up our national wealth. So we have this definite responsibility for assimilation which we must meet at the school door. Have we made a serious attempt to adapt our system of education to meet this demand? Our schools are for all children, and we have with us hundreds of thousands of immigrants eager to learn the English language. Do we use our schools for that purpose? Do we try to make it possible for these immigrants to learn our language? Have we made use of the industrial life as a basis for education? We have not, as you know. America is behind England, behind Germany and behind France in the matter of industrial education.

I am inclined to think that one of the reasons why we are behind is that we have left certain kinds of labor to certain groups of people whom we are willing to conceive of as immigrants. The French and the English and the Germans are doing their own work.

It is only by education we can assimilate the immigrants, but that education must be along the industrial life of these

people. Industrial education is one of the most important phases of our modern educational movement. More can be given to a child in the way of industrial education than in any other way. I know we come up against the labor union with this question, but the question is larger than the labor union. All the members of the labor union want their children properly trained. I would rather have my boy trained as an artisan up to the fifteenth year of his life. He would get more character by such a training than in any other way, and if he got the right sort of training he would get more liberal education than can be given today in our schools.

In industrial education we are on common ground with the immigrant, hence in industrial education we have the best means of assimilation and bringing together all these alien people. We must turn about and face this fact and recognize the responsibilities to these millions of people who, from the point of view of the lives they have lived and the deaths they have died in our factories and mines, have just as much right in this America as any one. We must face that responsibility, and recognize the opportunity we have in our hands. We must go back to their industrial life and to our industrial life, and find in so doing the means for the real bringing together of us all.

DISCUSSION ON THE PROBLEM OF IMMIGRANTS

Mrs. Kinney of Michigan—The political situation in this country adds the greatest point of danger to unrestricted immigration. The fact that the immigrant after his arrival in this country, whether educated or uneducated, whether criminal or innocent, is allowed full citizenship so soon, is one of the dangers we must face. Is it not true that in our system of public schools we offer to the child of the immigrant full and free opportunity to learn our language, which opportunity they do not all accept? Is it not true that immigrants coming to Ellis Island make it almost impossible for the commissioners to examine them on account of their inability to speak our language? They come insane and criminal, and with other physical disabilities. The fact that they cannot understand our language makes them appear dull and stupid and ignorant, when in reality they may not be so.

Mrs. Waterman of Ohio—In Cleveland, where we have a great foreign population, great efforts are made to give them opportunity for learning our language in the night schools for adults, as well as in our regular public schools. I like to defend the immigrant because he does the hard work which Americans do not like to do. For that reason I think we ought to make special efforts to teach those who are eager to learn.

Mr. Baskoff—I am an immigrant. The impression seems to be that many immigrants come here as criminals. The fact is they become criminals after two years and more stay in this country. Of foreigners who have been here less than five years reports show eight per cent. criminals. My personal observation during nineteen years of work among foreigners, proves that they become criminals after several years' stay in this country. If the commission will study the case of foreigners who stay in this country more than five years, they will see that the percentage increases.

The Chairman—Professor Commons has shown that the percentage of criminals among American-born is larger than among foreign-born. But the same is not true of their children.

Mr. Helfer of New York—Of 1,676 convicts in the Sing Sing and Auburn prisons last year nearly fifty per cent. were aliens, having been in this country less than three years. Of illiterates in Sing Sing last year eighty-three per cent. were aliens, and in Auburn forty-one per cent.

The Chairman—That is hardly fair unless we know the proportion of aliens in New York State to the proportion of Americans from which these prisons are supplied.

Mr. Helfer—We don't send so many to prison in proportion to the population as we used to. This is due to the fact that the insane are sent to the asylum for criminal insane and the young to reformatories. But the State Prison population has practically stood still for twenty years with respect to the general population, except in the case of foreign-born. It is a fact that many men get into prison who are not criminal in disposition or habit. They simply do not understand our laws and customs.

Mr. Proudfit of New York—Our commission called on Mr. Letchworth, and I bring his greeting to this Conference of Charities and Correction. Mr. Letchworth suggested that we invite a larger participation by foreigners, those resident in foreign lands, in our Conference, making it international. It seems to me this would be of the greatest value, especially in such a discussion as this, on immigrants. Foreign representatives would bring to us the point of view of the foreign governments. Then, too, we have able representatives of foreign nations who have thrown in their lot with their people in this country, and who see this question from this side of the water, who would be helpful to us in these discussions.

The Chairman—We agree with that suggestion.

Mr. Roberts of Buffalo—We ought to take the question of crime among the nations in Europe and compare with the crime in the United States, and find out if the proportion of crime among a certain race is larger here than in their own country. If it is, then the question arises, why? Are there conditions in the United States which induce crime among certain races? We constantly refer to criminals in certain sections, without ascertaining what the percentage is of that people in the population where the crime is lodged. The politician has during a quarter of a century in this country been leading the foreigner into everything that is bad, while the good people of the United States have pulled their skirts together and kept away from the Italian and the Slav, and every other nationality, and called the section where these foreigners live by such names as "Little Hell," "Bloody War" and "Dead Line." Now these things have their effect on the foreigner, and he resents it, and that is one reason why he is tricky in politics and becomes a criminal.

Rev. Dr. Boynton of Buffalo—The other morning in the Central High School I saw a splendid example of what the immigrant may do. As the result of a competition for a civil service medal, a large number of essays was submitted. A young Russian who could barely read his essay intelligibly, had a most beautifully expressed short statement on the subject of civil service, in its bearing on the municipality. It is an illustration of how the American spirit fits the boy and girl of immigrant parents. Wouldn't it be a great thing if all of us so-called Americans should train ourselves to speak just one foreign language that is especially prevalent in our town or city? Wouldn't that do more than any other thing to bridge over the gap between us?

The Chairman—Civil service is one of the things we got from the Old World; and America was the last of all the great nations to introduce it. We do not realize how much our best ideas, political and social, have been brought from the other side.

Mr. Hall of Ohio—The criminal age is between fifteen and forty, and the immigrants who come to our shores are for the most part between those ages. So you would expect a much larger proportion of criminality among immigrants than among those who have the children and old people also represented in their race. So our statistics are misleading. Anything that is done to solve this problem of immigration must be influenced greatly by what the trade unionists wish. In the last ten years the attitude of the trade unionists in this counry has changed very much with regard to the question of immigration.

Professor Jenks—The Immigration Commission is making a very careful investigation as to the attitude of trade unions throughout the country on the question of immigration. If inadvertently I intimated that I thought foreigners were particularly given to criminality, I wish to say I intended to make no such intimation.

The Chairman—The Chair wishes to apologize. If this meeting had intended to be a general discussion, she would have arranged to have foreigners present, and also trade unionists. But that was not the intention. What we want is to learn the condition of the immigrant.

THE INDUSTRIAL REMOVAL OFFICE

BY DAVID M. BRESSLER, GENERAL MANAGER OF INDUSTRIAL REMOVAL SOCIETY OF NEW YORK

(*Abstract.*)

The large influx of Roumanian Jews into this country in 1900, as a consequence of the many restrictive laws of Roumania, brought the Industrial Removal Office into being.

When the migration from Roumania assumed large proportions, an effort was made by several men prominent in Jewish philanthropy to divert the stream toward other centers of popula-

tion, by directly assisting the individual immigrants to settle in interior localities. The chief means first inaugurated to accomplish this end was the formation of a private committee to find employment for the Roumanian immigrants in other parts of the country. A large Jewish fraternal organization, with the aid of its many local chapters throughout the land, assisted in the work, which soon proved so successful that it seemed well to extend it further. As a result, the Industrial Removal Office was formally organized in 1901, and its benefits extended to all Jews, regardless of nativity. The chief aim of the Industrial Removal Office was then, as it is today, to distribute the immigrant over those sections of the country where economic and industrial conditions could best assimilate them. The underlying motive was not only to benefit the newcomer, but also to keep an eye on the industrial needs of our country. It was to be a case of give and take. The immigrant was to give his new land the benefit of his labor, in return for which he was to take opportunity—opportunity to work out his economic salvation in an environment of free republican institutions.

In view of the fact that the relief of congestion can be accomplished by the removal of any resident, regardless of whether he be an immigrant or not, it was decided to extend the activities of this institution to include all classes of Jews, residents as well as immigrants. As a matter of fact, the bulk of the beneficiaries of the Industrial Removal Office belong to what may be termed the immigrant class, namely, those who have been in this country less than three years.

The working apparatus of the institution are its agencies, which have been established in the large and important industrial centers of the land.

Since the work of the Industrial Removal Office is done with the great mass of Jewish population of New York City, efforts are being continually made to acquaint this mass with conditions throughout the country. Thousands of pamphlets, both in Yiddish and in English, have been distributed as the best and surest means of successful propaganda. The printed word carries great influence with Jewish readers. Exhibitions, also, have been held at various times, notably the one held at the Educational Alliance in the spring of 1907. At this exhibition almost

100,000 visitors listened to popular lectures on conditions throughout the country, saw with their own eyes photographs and stereopticon views illustrative of the life in the western communities, and were convinced that there were other worlds to conquer besides their little world in the southeastern corner of Manhattan Island. To the Jewish visitor this exhibition was in reality his own discovery of America. It is needless to add that during the weeks following this exhibition the application room of the Industrial Removal Office was crowded to its capacity.

But experience has shown that propaganda, however thorough and widespread, which is limited to the Jews of New York, is insufficient. The Jewish discovery of America ought to be accomplished before the Jew boards the ship at the port of embarkation, and before the New York idea has gained too firm a foothold in his mind.

An attempt in this direction has already been made by the Industrial Removal Office by publishing and spreading far and wide throughout eastern Europe a sort of Baedeker guide to America in the Yiddish language.

The diverting of Jewish immigration from the Atlantic seaboard to other sections of this country has been put into practice recently by the sponsors of the Galveston movement. Under the Galveston scheme, the arriving Jewish immigrants sail direct from Hamburg or Bremen to Galveston, with a view of settling in the cities and towns west of the Mississippi.

The Industrial Removal Office has been in existence now for eight years. During this period it has distributed 46,513 men, women and children. In this number are included 2,943 families with a head, 2,768 families removed to join the head who had preceded the family, 1,724 married men whose families remained in New York, 8,728 married men, whose families were still in Europe, and 10,446 unmarried men, and all of them wage-earners.

What is being done for the Jewish immigrant by the Industrial Removal Office ought to be done for all immigrants of all races and nationalities. All the so-called immigration perils advanced by the restrictionists would disappear were immigration in general evenly distributed over the land instead of forming slum

districts in our large cities to their own detriment and to the alleged detriment of the land of their adoption.

The government, through the Department of Commerce and Labor, has done something in this direction, but it, too, is content to find work for the immigrant, leaving him to do the rest. Under this plan no adequate provision is possible whereby the interests of the men sent for employment are fully protected against unscrupulous employers. The time may come, perhaps, when our government, imitating the example which the German government affords us, will undertake the removal of workingmen on a large scale from one section of the country to the other, doing this work, however, more thoroughly and efficiently by reason of the vast resources behind it than can be accomplished by private societies of limited capital.

There are many things made in Germany which we Americans have adopted for our use. We are not inclined through a false pride to deny the great influence Germany has had upon our educational system. In economic regulation and in the distribution of the laborer, Germany may, too, furnish us valuable information and perhaps a good example.

ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION ON THE PACIFIC COAST

BY W. ALMONT GATES, SECRETARY BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, STATE OF CALIFORNIA

(*Synopsis.*)*

In Eastern Asia more than 800 millions of the yellow race live, and in western America but little more than four millions of the white race live. Japan and California are about the same in area. Japan has a population of about fifty millions, while California has only two millions.

The conditions of living in Oriental countries are very much harder than in America. Centuries of toil and privation

*This paper has been printed in full and circulated by its author. For copies address Mr. W. Almont Gates, Merchants' Exchange, San Francisco, Cal.

have trained the Oriental to do the largest amount of work for the least cost of subsistence. American conditions of living are exploited in the Orient and immigration to this country is worked up by the steamship lines and assisted by emigration agencies there organized.

Chinese immigration to California commenced with the days of gold and continually increased until stopped by the exclusion law of 1882, at which time the annual increase of Chinese exceeded that of the white race. Then the Japanese commenced to arrive and from 1900 to 1908, 109,000 were admitted through the custom houses. There are now approximately in this country 476,000 Orientals, 85 per cent. of whom are on the Pacific Coast and Hawaii.

When the Oriental arrives he must find work, and to get it will underbid all others. Even then it is the highest wage he ever earned. He cooks his own simple food, rolls himself up in a blanket at night, and lives on less than fifty dollars a year. He gets employment first in the lowest fields of labor, works long hours and does fair work. By this means he entrenches himself in this line of work. Then he strikes to exclude all white men, after which higher wages are demanded. The next step is to demand the management of the business. Japanese capital is now making investments, and especially buying farm lands. If this continues, in time he will own the best farm lands and crowd out completely the white farmer. The white population protests against driving out the white man from the farm, heretofore the nurture field of the best American manhood.

The Oriental comes here, not for a home, but for gold. He has sent to the Orient over eight hundred millions of dollars in the last thirty years. He brings with him centuries of superstition and prejudices. The moral standards of the Oriental immigrants are low. They have no families. According to the census of 1900, one out of eighteen of the Chinese in this country, and one out of twenty-four of Japanese, are females. Of these women but few are virtuous, most are prostitutes, and some are slaves bought and sold as chattels in this country. The Oriental has planted here

the opium habit, now sapping the manhood of the lower strata of the white race.

Can the white man build a home, care for wife and weans, perform the duties of an American citizen, and compete for his daily bread with this wifeless, childless, yellow man?

The white and the yellow races have now met on the Pacific and the contest for supremacy has commenced. What the results will be we cannot tell. We are certain, however, that our duty lies in preserving those ideals of this Christian civilization which are the foundation stones of this Republic. To do this, the Oriental immigrant must be denied admission to these shores.

NIGHT SCHOOLS

BY PETER ROBERTS, PH. D., SECRETARY INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT, INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE, Y. M. C. A., NEW YORK

The freeman's meeting and public instruction are the two corner stones of democracy. The banded states that secured independence rested on these. The commonwealths developed by the sons of the colonists flourish in exact proportion as these are realized in them. And of these two, the greater is education, for the freeman's meeting will not long continue if citizens lack the training necessary to discuss questions pertaining to the common weal.

America believes in educated citizenship. No civilized country spends more on its system of public instruction and of no institution in the land are we prouder. The American habit of freely discussing public questions is the result of our public school system and America is seen at its best in communities where the ideals of democracy are realized in a comprehensive and harmonious system of education.

It is the irony of fate that the centers where these ideas were forged and cherished are today the abodes of colonies of illiterates, whose ideas seldom rise above sensuous realities. Most of the immigrants in the North Atlantic states do not appreciate our system of public instruction and grudgingly

pay for its support; they do not understand its relation to democracy and innocently subject themselves to the tyranny of demagogues; they as others rejoice in the flattering appellation, "freeman," and believe that they realize its full meaning when furnished with free beer, a free ride to the polls and a ready-made ballot. These conditions are far too common in towns bearing Puritanic names in New England, and unless strenuous efforts are made to remove the ignorance and illiteracy of immigrants, it will not be long before the freeman's meeting and public instruction in communities where they live will exist only in name. An incoming tide of a million a year, 80 per cent. of whom settle in the North Atlantic and North Central states, will affect this section of our country in such a way that the institutions we most cherish will be ominously strained if not subverted. It is the concern of every patriot to set in motion forces designed to conserve the heritage bequeathed us by our fathers.

The Young Men's Christian Association is honestly trying to contribute something in this respect to the welfare of the nation. It does so in night schools, in which the foreigners are taught the English language, the requirements of naturalization, the nature of our government, and something of the country into which they have come. Last year between 5,000 and 5,500 men met in groups of from ten to one hundred in one hundred and thirty cities. Some took their lesson at the noon hour in shops and factories, some at the midnight hour, some in the daytime, for they worked the night shift, but the vast majority met in the evening after the day's work was done.

The place where this work is done is most often a rented room or a hall in the place where the immigrants live. Few of the classes meet in association buildings. Sometimes the class is conducted in a lodge room, or in the basement of a church, or in a large room in a boarding house. In a few instances the school authorities furnish the room, light and heat, in one instance a room was given in the court house of town; an old barn in another place was used, and more than once the hall adjoining a saloon has witnessed the inception of the work.

The teachers have generally been young men—in a few instances young women have done the teaching. The teachers, as a rule, know nothing of the language of the group they teach. We have employed young men familiar with the mother tongue of the class, but our experience is that if they know the language of the men they teach the best work is not done. The atmosphere around the young men should be wholly English and both teacher and pupil in this way are put under pressure to try to understand each other in the English language.

The system used in these classes is the one described in the booklet, "English for Coming Americans."* It is a system especially adapted for the purpose of teaching immigrants our language in an interesting and rapid manner. It keeps in mind the fact that this adult wants every-day English—the language used in the home, on the street, in the store and in the shop. It is a tool which can be used by any man of average intelligence, who is anxious to help the immigrants in his community.

The effort to teach the foreigners our language is only a means to an end, and the end is to lead this foreign-speaking man, reared under different conditions and acquainted with different institutions, to adapt himself to a new environment and thus become a more useful citizen, a better worker, and a more congenial neighbor. For this purpose the best manhood of America should touch him and lead him to the ways of American civilization.

The Association, in order to do this, conducts classes in citizenship, and uses the centers where English is taught as nuclei for the advertising of stereopticon lectures on heroes of American history, or talks, well illustrated, on the resources of our country. The experience of the Association clearly proves that the men appreciate the effort and many of them immediately respond to the call to a higher and broader life.

The problem of touching the lives of the millions now in the country and the millions who are yet to come, will tax the resources of all social service agencies in the country. The states in which the immigrant problem is acute should seri-

*"English for Coming Americans," Peter Roberts, Y. M. C. A. Press, 124 East Twenty-eighth street, New York City.

ously grapple with it. These millions add to the wealth produced in these states, and the commonwealths could well afford to do this work on a scale commensurate with the need. No better use could be made of the fund gathered by the Federal government by the head tax imposed upon all immigrants, than to appropriate a part of it to help the immigrant to fall in line with our civilization. Whatever be the cost incident to the process of assimilating the immigrants it should be met by well regulated appropriations from the state and Federal governments according to the quantity and quality of the work done in behalf of these men.

The objection is often advanced that the immigrants do not want to learn our language and care less about our institutions. Grant this to be true, still is not this our country, and our standards, and not theirs, must prevail. If ever compulsory education was needed it is in the case of these men who come to our country from Southeastern Europe. We all blush because of the fearful waste of life and limb in certain industries in our land, but it is safe to say that this frightful loss of life and limb in the dangerous trades wherein foreigners work will not be reduced until pressure is brought to bear upon every foreign-tongued workman in the industries to learn the English language. We complain because of the frauds on election day, but traffic in votes and election frauds will not cease until pressure is brought to bear upon every foreign-born elector to know the nature of our government and to be able to understand the issues of our campaigns. Again and again are our health officers in a state of excitement because of some foul disease which has broken out in the "foreign quarter," but these menaces will not diminish until the foreigner is taught that he cannot do in the crowded city what he was in the habit of doing in the agricultural home from which he emigrated. The evils incident to the immigration tide are almost all matters of education, and by patiently and persistently conducting night schools and stereopticon lectures many of these evils will be cured.

The men enlisted by the association in this work are sympathetic with the immigrant and judicious in their work. America is the Benjamin of the nations of Christendom and

it is folly to imagine that modern civilization began with us. Civilization is a composite production, and every nation that has a history has contributed something to it. If night school work for immigrants is to be successful, we must tell the representatives of older nations that their ancestors contributed to the civilization we enjoy in this land.

Having confessed our obligation to older nations, we can expound the form of government worked out on this soil, show its relation to the advancement of human liberty, and state our hope that the democracy we now try to perfect deserves their support and is in line with every aspiration of man to throw off the tyranny of European and Asiatic rulers.

With this idea thousands of immigrants sympathize, and the men who respond will keep step with the best in the nation. A leaven will thus be put in the foreign colony which will raise these men to higher standards.

LABOR CAMP SCHOOLS

BY MISS SARAH W. MOORE, SUPERINTENDENT OF CAMP SCHOOLS, SOCIETY FOR ITALIAN IMMIGRANTS, NEW YORK.

(*Abstract.*)

The New York Society for Italian Immigrants has successfully introduced into several available labor camps the feature of night schools. The ordinary labor camp has little cheer; mud, ankle deep; beer kegs and refuse at every corner; darkness unrelieved except by the flitting lantern; a night-watchman the sole guardian of the peace; a place of toil, danger, separation, broken fragments of families, human kind crowded together in shanties furnished exclusively with bunks and possibly a table; no spot to put apart the sick or even the dead; no Sunday rest, no week-day rest except the rainy day; a host of bewildered strangers practically mute and bereft of speech in a strange land; suspicious because so often exploited; avoided and dreaded by the natives among whom they are temporarily located because unknown.

A school house open after work is over, lighted and warmed, which has its study hours and its welcome for all, from which books may be circulated, where advice may be sought, letters put into shape or translated, where the teacher is friend and confidant and the ways of Americans can be studied at first hand, is as hearth and home to the friendless.

It is the society's method first to sound the disposition of a camp towards a school by agitating the subject. The men invariably welcome the idea. Then to seek the consent and cooperation of the "powers that be"—the superintendent, the president of the company, the contractor.

These are generally incredulous and slow of heart, but not hostile to the movement, and some provision can usually be made for housing the school. At Aspinwall, Pa., the school was housed in a vacant section of one of the long shanties until the Pittsburg Filtration Company built a roomy schoolhouse planned with special reference to the convenience of adults and capable of transformation into auditorium or social parlor. Here the men, on the occasion of our legal and other holidays scattered through the year—Labor Day, Columbus Day, Thanksgiving, Christmas, the presidential birthdays in February, etc.—have the opportunity to gratify their curiosity about, to be instructed in and to be prepared for worthy American citizenship to which a large proportion of them look forward with keen anticipation.

However, the immediate need of the now vast aggregations of foreigners in our labor camps is a practical training of ear and tongue, the acquisition of a vocabulary which relates to the situation in which they find themselves, a knowledge of our currency, of how to use our public institutions—the postoffice, the bank, the railroad ticket office; a knowledge of districts outside of cities where homes might be created; a knowledge of our sanitary code, of the penalties for violations of corporation ordinances, penalties for carrying concealed weapons—in short, many particulars supposed to be known to residents of this country, but which must be taught to newcomers.

It is the contention of the Society for Italian Immigrants that the raw immigrant, while still plastic and responsive to wholesome influences, while isolated and dependent as found

in the labor camps scattered over the country, should be recognized as an embryo citizen, should be considered as the ward of the state and should receive from the state the elementary knowledge of our language and of our laws which will make him independent and responsible. The state may well make an adjustment and extension of its public night-school system to meet the necessities of this great mass of willing, well-disposed foreign young men who constitute the working force employed upon the great constructive enterprises of our day.

THE FOREIGNER BEFORE OUR COURTS

BY GINO C. SPERANZA, ATTORNEY FOR SOCIETY FOR ITALIAN IMMIGRANTS; MEMBER N. Y. IMMIGRANT COMMISSION; COUNSEL TO THE CONSUL-GENERAL OF ITALY AT NEW YORK

(*Abstract.*)

Law as administered and enforced by tribunals is, at best, a poor handmaiden of Justice; under the most favorable circumstances it affords only a limited protection of rights and an even less effective redress of wrongs.

If, therefore, justice, even in a workaday sense, is so difficult of right application to our own people, what tremendous obstacles must stand in the way of applying "an exalted justice" to the aliens in our midst; to men and women, who, to a great extent, are with us but not of us; ignorant, if not of things and men, often ignorant of our language and customs, and by that very ignorance rendered either too cunning or too confiding. At the very outset we discriminate between citizens and prospective citizens by statutorily classifying the latter when they come to us into desirable and undesirable. We have a clear right to do so, our first duty being to protect and defend our own country. But in applying that indefinite statutory classification we deny the aliens those legal safeguards which we give our citizens against the danger of decisions by summary, arbitrary and non-judicial tribunals.

Thus there is no appeal to the judicial authorities except in a limited sense under our immigration laws from the decisions of the boards of special inquiry at immigrant stations. Yet boards of special inquiry are not judicial courts, but committees of government employes of a low hierarchical grade, laymen not lawyers, yet wielding a most tremendous power without other guarantee than their conscience.

Our immigration legislation, while perfectly justifiable as a defensive measure, is against the spirit of our traditional scheme of law, in that it discriminates as between alien and citizen, contrary to the spirit of that law. Thus, if through our own insufficient and inefficient executive machinery, we let in an ex-convict, for example, the fact that he has paid the penalty and that he has conducted himself honestly since his admission will not prevent our deporting him, if we discover our mistake within three years after his admission. The tendency, I might almost say instinct, to discriminate against resident aliens is evidenced by the large number of legal disabilities to which they have been subjected in many states. Though such disabilities are happily almost entirely removed in our country the continuance of the tendency to discriminate, even though not legally sanctioned by statutes, is demonstrated by the provisions in existing treaties and international conventions guaranteeing reciprocal rights and equal protection to foreigners.

For example, the treaty between the United States and Italy, as most other treaties, provides "the citizens of each of the high contracting parties shall receive in the states and territories of the other the most constant protection and security for their persons and property * * * " (Art. 111); and in order to render such guarantee effective the consular convention entered into between the same high contracting parties in 1878 provides that their consular officers "may have recourse to the authorities of the respective countries within their district, whether federal or local, judicial or executive, in order to defend the rights and interests of their countrymen."

There are solemn and ample treaty provisions guaranteeing protection to alien residents. Yet we have repeatedly wit-

nessed their ineffectiveness as preventives of discrimination against foreigners or as a means for legal redress against grievous wrongs to aliens. A more common violation of our fundamental juridic principles to the damage of aliens is what may be classified under the title of "peonage."

But the disadvantageous position of the foreigner before our courts, despite treaty guarantees and international comity, is not limited to those exceptional cases of danger to life and limb through the inflamed passions of an angry mob. A striking example how such disadvantage manifests itself in every day procedure in courts of law is found in a very different field, that of the administration of estates of poor aliens dying in our largest center of immigration, New York City.

Again it is a matter of common knowledge among lawyers engaged in accident litigation for foreigners that it is difficult to obtain a jury that will not, under oath, admit a lower money valuation for injuries to aliens than to citizens.

But, however impartial the intent of the law, and however intelligent and indulgent the jury, the great handicap to the alien litigant in any case, civil or criminal, is his ignorance of the language, necessitating the use of interpreters.

The deficiencies of our interpreters is one of the greatest, if not the greatest of the handicaps in the way of legal redress or protection of our alien population. And these deficiencies are especially felt in those courts where they generally apply for redress or to which they are brought for infraction of the law.

In connection with this subject we must consider the nature of the offenses for which aliens are brought into the criminal courts. The statistics in the Court of General Sessions (N. Y. Co.) for the year ending December 31, 1907, show that 2,848 persons were convicted. Of these, 63.5 per cent. were natives of the United States; 10.9 per cent. were natives of Italy and 7.3 per cent. were natives of Russia. The principal crimes for which persons were convicted were: Assault in the second degree, assault in the third degree, grand larceny in the second degree, petty larceny, and burglary in the third degree. These seven charges made up 78.4 per cent. of all the offenses.

According to the report of the board of city magistrates of the first division for the year 1907, there were 138,047 persons arraigned, of whom 71,253 were held. Of these 5,879 were held for felony, 9,875 for misdemeanors, and 55,499 on summary proceedings. There are no statistics of nationality for the 66,525 persons discharged, or for the 269 pending cases.

Of the 71,253 persons arraigned, 42.1 per cent. were natives of the United States, 12.9 per cent. natives of Russia, 11.5 per cent. Italian, 11.3 per cent. Irish, 5.9 per cent. German and 4.2 per cent. Greek, etc.

The ten crimes which were numerically the most important were assault in the third degree, burglary, disorderly conduct, intoxication, drunkenness and disorderly conduct, grand larceny, petit larceny, vagrancy, violation of corporation ordinances and violation of the sanitary code. These ten offenses made up 83.8 per cent. of the whole number of cases.

The most salient point, however, concerning all these statistics is the percentage of persons of the various nationalities convicted for violations of corporation ordinances and the sanitary code.

It is well to point out that there were no less than 10,715 foreign-born persons held or committed by magistrates of the first division in 1907 on charges of violating these ordinances. Probably as many more were brought into court on similar charges and discharged. There is certainly a great civic loss in drawing so many immigrants into the contagion of the police courts.

After the violations of corporation ordinances, with the exception of disorderly conduct and intoxication, the next largest item of immigrant crimes are the violation of the sanitary code. During the year 1907, 3,209 immigrants were held or committed in the magistrates' courts of the first division on this charge.

Hence, possible violations of municipal ordinances should be tried in the civil instead of in the criminal courts, as is the custom in Buffalo. Fines should be imposed instead of imprisonment, and whenever possible, especially for violators of the sanitary code and the corporation ordinances, the person

arraigned should be the responsible principal instead of, as now, the ignorant agent.

The minor municipal ordinances and regulations should be more generally and systematically enforced, and means should be taken to acquaint the immigrant in his own language with the regulations which he is likely to violate, as well as with the general laws and institutions of the state, city and nation. More important than the punishment of crime is its prevention, and the most effective means of prevention is education.

EXPERIENCES WITH IMMIGRANTS IN POLICE COURT

BY EMMANUEL LEVINE, JUDGE POLICE COURT, CLEVELAND, OHIO

(*Abstract.*)

Not until recent date was there any serious effort made to understand the harassing problems which face the average immigrant. Those of us who pursued this line of inquiry were compelled, in all fairness, to confess that we, the American people, did not perform our whole duty in our relation to the immigrants. We have, through our inaction and indifference, helped to put them in the vile atmosphere of the degrading sweatshop and the unhealthy crowded tenement house. We have left them to become a prey to political corruption and to the greed of unscrupulous characters who exploited them. We have shown the immigrant the stern and sharp edge of our law but not its humanity. We cried aloud when he offended us, but turned a deaf ear to his appeals for justice.

If my assertions sound too severe, I shall at once turn to observations made in the most popular institution of a great cosmopolitan city—the Police Court of the city of Cleveland. A few illustrations will suffice. They extend through a period of six years, commencing with the month of May, 1903. It is well to state at the outset that Cleveland's population is estimated at nearly half a million, and that the Police Court of that city exercises final jurisdiction over the entire population

in all cases known as misdemeanors, by which are meant all violations of law in which the penalty is less than imprisonment in the penitentiary. Court reports show that until January 1, 1908, when a radical departure was made in the police administration, the average number of cases annually disposed of in the Cleveland Police Court was 30,000, and it may safely be asserted that three-fourths of that number were not native Americans. This is not at all surprising considering the large number of foreign-born inhabitants who constitute a large part of that city's population. We can readily see the influence which such a court exerts for good or ill on those unacquainted with our laws and who learn their benign kindness or malignant severity from actual contact with it. One who kept in close touch with the cleaning process applied to the Police Court and the "gangsters" that infested it is forced to admit that the influence exerted by that institution was of the degrading kind, as many abuses were brought to light practiced in the name of the law on the much-lamented immigrant! Extortion, oppression and fraud were heaped upon him. This for a long time remained unobserved because political corruption successfully kept it under cover.

I shall take, for the purpose of illustration, a young immigrant who arrives in the United States with true regard for everything American. As he dismounts the passenger train he is surrounded by many cabmen, who offer to take him to his destination. Bewildered, he engages a cab, and when he is through he learns that he has been defrauded through an exorbitant charge. After spending a few days with friends or relatives, he finds it necessary to look at once for some sort of occupation. He is introduced by one of his countrymen to the manager or proprietor of a peddler supply house, where he is provided with many small articles packed together in one large bundle. With the burden on his back he travels through strange territory, meets strange people and slowly becomes familiar with the peddler occupation. Towards evening he proceeds homeward, hopeful for a much-needed rest after a long day's toil, but to his utter discomfiture he is made the plaything of hoodlums who delight in abusing and ill-treating him. He tells his experience to a neighbor who promptly takes

him to a ward politician for advice. The politician informs our peddler that in the United States money is all powerful and with ten or fifteen dollars he would start things going! He takes pains to explain that he desires nothing for his own services; the sum stated is, however, necessary to start the rusty wheels of justice. The peddler, smarting under the memory of the abuse heaped upon him, complies with the request. His assailant is arrested and brought into court. For the first time our immigrant is thrown into actual contact with the law. When the matter comes to trial he learns that even the hoodlum is not without friends, political friends, who come to his rescue. A weak individual, who fears to antagonize the politicians, presides over the court. The magistrate follows the line of least resistance. The case is dismissed.

A week later this same peddler offends against the law. He learns that the law is quick to apprehend *him* when *he* does wrong. He finds it necessary to pay a goodly sum of money to the professional bondsman before he is released on bail. He must in addition secure the services of a certain lawyer who stands well with the court, and must pay dearly for the intervention of political influence to invoke the clemency of the judge on the bench. The professional bondsmen evil occupied the attention of the Cleveland Police Court prosecutor for several years. It was found among others to be their practice to give information to the police, thereby securing arrests, and afterwards derive lucrative income from bailing the very ones whose arrest they secured.

The "shyster" lawyer, by stirring litigation and causing strife among the poor foreigners, reaps a profitable harvest. One illustration will suffice. An Austrian was arrested on a charge of assault, and an old friend of his called to bail him out. He was introduced to a lawyer, and the lawyer secured his bondsman. "As we don't know you," said the lawyer, "I require my fee, fifty dollars, in advance." This was paid. "Now," said the lawyer, "What security have you for my friend here, who has signed the bond for the prisoner?" The old Austrian said that he had $150 in the bank. He was told to go home for his bank book, and when he brought it the lawyer showed him a legal paper in English which the old man could

not read. "This," said the lawyer, "is to say that you have left your bank book with me as security—you must sign it here." The old man signed the paper, which was simply a transfer ordering the bank to pay the old man's money to the lawyer. The same day the lawyer drew the money and deposited it in his own bank. When the case was over and the Austrian asked for his bank book, the lawyer sent him to the bondsman; the bondsman sent him to the lawyer and after a sleepless week he came to the prosecutor's office. The prosecutor went to the bank, got the bank book and the transfer and had the old man sign an affidavit. Then the lawyer was sent for. He was a man with a respectable name in town, and was most indignant about the slur on his reputation, but when he was shown the book and the transfer he turned white, said nothing, went out, came back soon and laid the $150 on the table. The old Austrian was present and was told to take his money, and the lawyer was warned that the evidence would be held over to avoid future trouble. This was only one case. It took several years of constant vigilance to reduce to a minimum the power of "shyster" lawyers and their "cappers" or "runners" who drummed up business for them.

The transactions of justices of the peace, constables, railway detectives and other officials will furnish sufficient examples of other grave wrongs practiced on those who are not acquainted with our laws. The jurisdiction of justices of the peace under the law of Ohio, instead of being confined to their own townships, had been extended to include the whole county in which a city lies. Many residents of Cleveland, unable to secure election as justices here, had removed to outlying townships, procured their election and then returned to establish offices in the city. Unlike the justices elected in the city, these men were paid no salaries but instead were allowed to pocket all justice fees. The fees, as more and more corrupt justices came into power, mounted high, and in many cases became their sole motives for issuing criminal process. In connection with these courts scores of collectors and hangers-on had spread over the city, stirring up litigation with the consent of some justice who rewarded their effort by appointing them as special constables in the cases they brought to his court and allowing

them exorbitant fees for their services. These, like their own, were extorted from the defendants, oftentimes amounting to twenty times the claim. In drumming up business so profitable, all kinds of corruption crept in—forged affidavits, forged undertakings in attachment, false returns of amounts collected by constables. All this was common. Several justices even sold affidavits and other court papers signed by them in blank, at stated prices. The papers were kept by the constables and collectors as stock in trade; these they filled in themselves and so set in motion the machinery of the law without even calling the matter to the attention of the justice. The justice shut his eyes and almost invariably rendered judgment for the plaintiff without the least inquiry into the merits of the case. The constables in collecting met little resistance, as their victims were usually ignorant foreigners, hard-working men and women who could not afford lawyers, and as for the claimant, he often got but a very small per cent. of his claim.

To solve the immigration problem it is necessary that we have a thorough understanding of the problems facing the immigrant. We are in duty bound to perform the obligations of our guardianship and we must therefore provide safeguards for his protection against the many vultures who are ever ready to pounce upon him. When we shall have solved the problems facing the immigrant we shall have done much toward the solution of the immigration problem which is facing the American people.

THE IMMIGRANT AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH

BY DOUGLAS C. MCMURTRIE, PITTSBURGH TYPHOID FEVER COMMISSION

(*Abstract.*)

The immigrant and the public health—have they a relation? If so, how does it operate and to what extent does it exist?

The first intimation that such a relation might exist arose from a fact brought out in a canvass during normal times of the typhoid fever cases in the city of Pittsburgh. It was found that in twenty-four per cent. of the cases the patients had been in the city less than one year.

Now the number of residents who have been in the city less than a year does not amount to more than three per cent. of the total population. That twenty-four per cent. of the typhoid cases occurred among this class, therefore, seemed extremely disproportionate.

A study of the individual cases bore out the general impression obtained. The greater part of those who contracted the fever soon after their arrival were found to be immigrants who came at once to Pittsburgh. This would of course indicate a total ignorance on their part of American conditions.

Having arrived at this point a study was then made of the relation between immigration into Pennsylvania and the number of typhoid deaths in Pittsburgh. To say the least, a remarkable coincidence was seen to exist and a chart was prepared in which the lines representing immigration into the United States and typhoid fever deaths in Pittsburg follow each other extremely closely. Both lines vary with the rise and fall of industrial prosperity. The typhoid line rises first in good times, this being due to the first inrush of natives, and a little later on the effect of the industrial acceleration is seen in the immigration. Then the typhoid line rises rapidly and is borne up to its full height by this latter element. In time of industrial depression the typhoid line falls off before the immigration line because the immigrants keep coming and do not hear until later that the demand for labor has ceased.

That the immigrant class constitutes such a large proportion of the typhoid cases referred to has an even more important effect on the prevalence of the disease. They are responsible for many other cases among people who would not have caught the fever otherwise.

A consideration of the general health of the immigrant in this country shows it to be dependent directly upon four leading factors: 1. The physique of the immigrant. 2. His destination. 3. His susceptibility. 4. His previous environment.

The physique of the immigrant is of much importance, as indicating to a very considerable extent his vital resistance or power to resist disease and disease-breeding conditions.

The statistics of the immigrant medical inspectors show that a great many of the immigrants at the present time are certified by their inspectors as having poor physiques, or being physically unfit. These immigrants are then passed on for further inspection, and the great majority of them are admitted on account of the laxity of the law, which provides only for the exclusion of those suffering from loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases or embraced within the rather inadequate category of "Likely to become a public charge." No notice whatever is taken of those who beyond shadow of a doubt "would be likely"—nay, certain—to breed a weakling offspring.

Another indication of the general health of the immigrants is the number of each nationality that are committed to the hospital at Ellis Island upon landing. Judging by this and by the figures of the medical examiners, it would appear that the races which comprise the newer and rising portions of our immigration are physically far below the normal.

The second factor—the destination of the immigrant—has a bearing, in so far as the immigrant may go to a place where danger from infection is either great or small. When this is considered in connection with the factor of physique, just discussed, a study of the destination of immigrants reveals a fact of interest. Those with the poorest physique naturally, almost without exception, go to the places where the sanitary conditions are the worst.

The third factor—that of the susceptibility of the immigrant—is of interest on account of the age distribution of the incom-

ing aliens. One would naturally expect that their liability to disease would be very small on account of the small proportion of people at the time of life most susceptible to disease—childhood and old age. Further than that, they are protected from the danger of smallpox by the compulsory vaccination on the steamers coming over. To a slight extent, however, these considerations are counterbalanced by the fact that many of the immigrants have not had some of the diseases to which they are susceptible in this country, and from which many of the natives are practically immune through having had them once in youth.

The fourth and last factor—that of previous environment and conditions of life of the immigrant—has more real importance than one would, from a casual glance, be led to suppose. Upon further consideration it will seem that upon this depends the measure of change from his previous environment to his new situation. For the English immigrant the transition will amount to but little. For the Slav it is a matter of grave import. For city-bred workers the migration is comparatively easy and natural; for the agriculturists that make up so large a part of our present-day immigration, the change from the vineyards of southern Europe to the slums of New York City or Pittsburgh is a severe one indeed. An Austrian coming from the region of pure mountain streams and springs, where any water he might encounter would be drinking water of the purest sort, could hardly be expected to understand and intelligently to combat the insidious dangers of infection lurking in some of our city water supplies.

Two other closely allied considerations have, in an intricate way, an interesting bearing on the health of the immigrants. One is the high proportion of illiterates among the class at the present time, and the other is the practically universal inability to read the English language. Whether it is a matter of general realization or not, most of the warnings regarding sanitary dangers come through the medium of the daily press and so do not come to the notice of the majority of immigrants.

It has been very difficult to get much accurate information concerning the immigration of the present time. The statistics available have been singularly inadequate for a scientific study of the subject I have outlined.

The question as to how soon a native-born child of foreign parents throws off his family's national habits and comes under the effect of Americanizing influence demands solution, so as to make possible the classification of patients into the two general groups as to predominating characteristics—whether to all intents and purposes they are American or foreign.

Another important subject of study is an investigation of the ideas held by the people of different nationalities regarding the dangers from disease. Do they guard against these at all? What attitude do they assume regarding filtering water, boiling milk, and other precautions?

So much, then, for this brief consideration of the health of the immigrant. When there is recalled the absence of any selective or restrictive force in our present immigration, the poor physique of many of the immigrants, the great chances of infection afforded in their new homes, the poor preparation they have for withstanding the dangers to which they are subjected, the slight opportunity they have for learning about them, and the wholesale way in which they do contract infectious diseases soon after their arrival, we would seem justified in concluding that the relation between immigration and the public health is neither obscure nor unimportant.

CHILD LIFE ON THE STREET

BY PHILIP DAVIS, SUPERVISOR OF LICENSED MINORS, BOSTON SCHOOL COMMITTEE

(*Abstract.*)

The congestion of our cities, due to ill-distributed immigration, is seen at its worst on our streets. The overcrowding of the tenements, made possible by the indefinite subdivision of room space, and the multiplication of the number of tenants per room, is not so glaring because the crowds are tucked away in groups, and sectioned off by walls which separate them from their neighbors. But the street brings them all together, men, women and children. Moreover, the

tenements are deserted whenever the inhabitants find it possible to be on the street. The saving grace of tenement folk is that they don't live in the tenements. They eat, sleep and work there, but they live on the street. This is especially true of the children who constitute three-fifths of the tenement population. They avoid the tenement almost as men shun prison. They love the outdoor life. The street has many attractions; freedom, fellowship, play, not the best air, but plenty of air. Tenement children are not wanted at home. They are crowded out onto the street. The humblest tenement frequently has a parlor, but a nursery or a playroom, never!

The older children grow, the less they see of the home and the more of the street. When they get to be of school age, the law triumphs over home and street alike in securing their presence in school. But few people realize how small is the proportion of the actual time spent by tenement children in school as compared with the time spent on the street. Five hours out of twenty-four for 190 days out of 365 is what the school calendar calls for. Subtract rainy days, sick days, religious holidays and draw your own conclusion. Tenement children, in short, spend more time on the street than they do either at home or in school.

And how do they spend it—in action, in "doing something," all the time. So that on the principle of learning by doing, the time spent in the street sinks deep into their lives and influences them profoundly for weal or woe.

The street makes all activities possible. Its fellowship makes for a spirited ball game or a spirited "crap game." Its freedom permits wood picking as well as food scavenging. We are just beginning to realize that the legitimate forms of street play, such as ball playing, running, skating, like the legitimate forms of street work, such as selling newspapers, blacking boots, peddling notions, require careful supervision. But how about such activities as "flipping cars," "shooting craps," "pitching pennies," playing cards, "swiping," "breaking and entering," etc. These latter activities are certainly as universal as many of the most legitimate forms of play and work. Take "crap shooting" as an example.

Sunday is as truthfully "crap day" as spring time is top time, or else how could Monday be "crap day" in court? Similarly with activities which border closely on child labor. The age, time and condition under which children are allowed to work in the streets are in a few enlightened cities regulated by law. For example, in Boston a boy is not allowed to sell papers unless he is eleven, nor to begin selling before 6 a. m. nor to sell after 8 p. m. But what about Tony who is only seven and who gets up at four in the morning to gather wood in the market, or who is at work till eleven at night gathering chicken feet and all the offal of the push-cart? If child labor is evil, why are not these things evil? Yet no law touches these occupations, nor does any one greatly concern himself about them.

If it is criminal for a hungry boy to steal an apple from a fruit stand, is it not equally criminal, though not illegal, for a girl to scour the market for rotten fruit? The boy is arrested, but the girl is free to pursue her dangerous occupation day by day. You say that the boy's act involves "moral turpitude." Does not the girl's act involve "moral turpitude" in a very vital sense? It does, indeed, in a double sense; moral turpitude on our part as well as on hers. The moral of all this is not that we ought to arrest the girl food-scavenger, as we arrest the boy fruit-stealer. In our treatment of consumptives we have learned that the important thing is to arrest the disease. In our treatment of juveniles, however, we still continue to arrest the child instead of arresting the evil which preys upon the child.

Another evil of the street is the familiar corner gang. Like the street itself, the gang has in it much that is good, in composition with a great deal that is evil. Every child of the tenement neighborhood lives this threefold life of the home, the school and the street. These three institutions offer the child three distinct standards of conduct, the differences of which are responsible for many aberrations in child life. They explain, for example, why Eddie, who is always a "good" boy at home or in school, is such a devil on the street. The harmonizing of these standards is the real

problem. Our efforts so far have been confined to the home and the school, and it is gratifying to note how much nearer these institutions are getting together, due chiefly to the formation of Parent and Teachers' Associations. So long as we have the parent as the presiding genius over the home, and the teacher as the presiding genius over the school to appeal to, the general public need not fret so much about either of these institutions, but should rather see to it that the public street does not undo the work of both. For what genius besides the evil one presides over the street? In the mind of the kid it is "de cop," but in truth it is the public, or rather public opinion, that makes the street what it is. Unfortunately, public opinion is still largely unconcerned about so immediate and daily an issue as cleaning the streets, or child labor on the streets, let alone the larger problems of the reasonable number of children to a city block (the one remedy to reduce general street congestion), or the provision for inner court-yards in every block (the only way of taking the children off the street), etc. But public opinion, like a little child, can be trained and educated, and it may be that out of sheer self-preservation our little children shall lead us to a higher sense of responsibility towards them.

In the meantime, as our city planning progresses, we might well keep in mind the more patent needs of childhood. Well planned cities ought to have residential streets kept free from traffic with its many dangers to life and limb, and above all clean streets. It is sheer nonsense to preach cleanliness to children in school and then turn them out to play on dirty streets. Well planned cities ought to have inner court-yards, either private or public, for the children of every block. Even the present yards, including the school yards, could stand much immediate improvement and wider use by the children, as some cities have proved. The home parlor might be better adapted and more strictly dedicated to the children without offense to the fictitious visitor, in whose interest it is now maintained. And what of the curfew? It sounds old fashioned, of course, and it is supposed to be unsuited to the needs of a growing city, but would it really hinder the growth of the city if the curfew were to ring at

9 p. m., and all children, say under sixteen, would betake themselves to bed?

A little boy who was accustomed to go to bed immediately as the street lamps were lighted, once happened to look out of the window, just as he was about to put the light out. Lo and behold! the street was full of children bobbing around like little manikins in the lights and shadows of the street lamps. "Mamma," he asked in surprise, "are these the night children?"

These night children of the street do seem to live a life quite apart from normal childhood. The effects are already telling on them. The children of the tenement districts are visibly smaller in stature than the children of the countries they come from. This country cannot afford to permit this physical inferiority to go on unchecked.

From the narrow street to the open country may be a far cry, but after all the street as used in this connection is very recent; nor is there anything permanent about it. Like the tenement house, it plays its part in a transition period in the development of this country. The American city street is like a railroad station on a convention day. People coming from all parts of the country crowd upon each other to the discomfort of all, but presently the great distributing forces are set in motion. Some are hustled off in automobiles, some in carriages, some by trolley and some hasten away on foot. Before long the crowd disappears and the station assumes its normal aspect.

American cities have been receiving stations for the gathering of peoples from all parts of the world, but the marvelous transportation developments will presently set in motion new distributing forces. All manner of rapid transit will carry people off and scatter them as the sower scatters his seed, over the broad plains of the great country lying just outside the city gates. And the city streets as the children's habitat will be no more.

THE DELINQUENT CHILDREN OF IMMIGRANT PARENTS

BY MRS. JOSEPH T. BOWEN, PRESIDENT JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO

(*Abstract.*)

Every year a large army of people enter into the United States from Italy, Austria-Hungary and Russia, all seeking escape from economic wrongs or political persecution, or spurred on by the magic word America, which means freedom and prosperity.

As these immigrants land at Ellis Island their faces are full of eagerness and expectation, the hardships of the long voyage are forgotten, the present waiting and discomforts are ignored, and they submit without a sign of impatience to the medical examination and wait with almost pitiful eagerness for their discharge.

Most of these immigrants have come from an agricultural community. They have, perhaps, looked forward for years to this change of home. America has stood to them as an ideal country, an asylum for the oppressed, where they might enjoy religious liberty and freedom from persecution, where the cost of living was low, work plentiful and wages high, and where they could get for their children the training and education that should make them happy and independent.

These immigrants do not settle on the unoccupied lands of the United States, nor scatter themselves throughout small industrial centers where labor is needed. They go instead to the already overcrowded cities, which they still further congest, complicating the problem of living for those already on the ground, and confronting the municipal authorities with new and perplexing problems. Years of poverty, discomfort and persecution have apparently had no effect upon the birth rate of these people, for large families are almost invariably the rule, and children, unkempt and unwashed, but undeniably picturesque, are always in evidence. It is of these children, of which one school in New York has twenty-nine nationalities, that I wish to speak.

It is a well-known fact that juvenile delinquency increases with centralization of population, and the injurious effect of city life upon the children of immigrants cannot be too strongly stated. As soon as the immigrant reaches the city he is obliged to look for work and guard his resources, perhaps to pool them with those of another family, and he is forced to rent unsanitary and vermin infected quarters that have been discarded by other immigrants who have been able to move a rung higher on the social ladder. So the children live in tenements, in attics or cellars, in rooms unlighted and unheated, where broken-down stairways, rotten woodwork, defective plumbing and overflowing garbage boxes all teach a disregard for laws that are not enforced. The children are underfed and poorly nourished, therefore anemic; they are often abnormal and malformed, therefore dull; they have little moral training, therefore the difference betwen right and wrong does not exist for them. The father, perhaps, is an unskilled laborer, and takes what work he can get, often paying the greater part of his first month's salary to the employment bureau that has found him his position. Consequently, the family gets behind and is under pecuniary pressure most of the time, or the father is ill or dead and the mother takes in washing or goes out to scrub by the day, or cleans office buildings at night, and in both cases the parents come home, tired from their unaccustomed work in close places instead of in the open air, rather confused by their new experiences, and unable to pay any attention to the children, who go out into the streets seeking the amusement which is not to be found in the home. There they meet the gang, live the life of the gang and in a remarkably short time become vicious and demoralized.

Then the children easily acquire the language of the country and despise their parents because they are unable to master it. They are often ashamed of their parents and unwilling to be seen with them, and the parents do not understand our customs and do not know what their children are doing or why they are in trouble.

The public schools further separate the children from the parents because they teach subjects unknown to the parents, and the children, in consequence, feel superior and try to assume control of everything at home. This is resented by the parents,

all discipline and respect are at an end, the child perhaps becomes a truant, possibly because he is idle, possibly because he dislikes school, the path from truancy to delinquency is a short one, and the child soon lands in the Juvenile Court. The records of this court in Chicago show that four-fifths of the children brought into court are the children of foreigners, that between the ages of eleven and twelve are produced the most truants, that the largest number of delinquents are brought in between fifteen and sixteen and that the largest number of crimes are committed between twenty and twenty-five; that the majority of boys are brought in for larceny and the majority of girls for incorrigibility, which usually means immorality, but is not always noted as such by the officers.

Frequently we find that the immigrants are ignorant of our laws. They do not understand, for instance, our compulsory education law or our child labor law, both of which are admirably enforced in Illinois. They have thought of America as a country where they might enjoy life, and where they might live on the earnings of their children, whose duty it was to support them. They do not see what right we have to insist that their children shall go to school.

The cheap theaters are constantly making bids for the patronage of children. They get out advertisements and sensational posters, their plays deal with murder and crime and the dominating note seems always to be revenge. At one of these theaters 500 boys and 450 girls were counted. The children will steal in order to buy tickets for these theaters; and yet, the wish to see these plays is but a natural desire for amusement, and if we do away with the theaters we must replace them with something that will take their place. This craving for excitement induces the child to try the slot-machine where for a penny there is a possibility of getting, not only a cent's worth of gum, but five cents worth or even thirty cents worth.

The police attitude toward children, especially boys, is all wrong. The children of the immigrant, instead of looking upon the policeman as a friend, and regarding him as an enforcer of the law, which they should respect, regard him as their natural enemy and try to get even with him by breaking the law, and escaping the consequences. Recently in Chicago, a policeman

arrested a boy who was running, lodged him in a cell, and when he was released the next day, as there was no charge against him, gave him the advice not to try running again. The same criticism can be applied to the special detectives employed by the large houses and manufacturing concerns. The dance halls are a source of danger to the children, especially the girls. It has been estimated that these halls form nine-tenths of the amusement program of the young in the large cities. Dancing seems to be the amusement most sought after, it is a safety valve for the emotions of youth, a legitimate outlet for surplus energy and animal spirits, a relaxation for tired nerves and overworked bodies; but in the public dance halls, where there is no chaperonage, where drinking is the principal object and dancing a secondary interest, the girl is not welcome unless she drinks, and the boy, in order to show his gallantry, presses it upon her.

Many Greek boys are brought or come to this country. There are no women among them, no home life of any kind; they are free from all restraint and board together, fifteen or twenty in a group; there is no one in authority and they soon drift into immorality. This is also true of the Bulgarians who are coming without their women. Very often groups of Polish girls are found in large cities, perhaps one of the girls has a brother and he brings other men to board, there is no older woman to warn them of the danger, they forget the things they have been so carefully taught by their mothers, they lose, in their confined quarters, their sense of what is decent and proper, and soon become demoralized.

The Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago, feeling that the conditions which exist in all large cities make delinquents and criminals, are now trying what they can do to alter these conditions. They are trying to decrease the number of children who every year are brought into court. To this end, they have divided Chicago into sixteen districts. In each of these districts there is a paid officer, whose duty it is to look after the children, protect them in every way, and to cooperate with all child-saving societies. During the past year they have had 2,593 complaints of children going wrong; of these 2,329 were the children of immigrants. Through their efforts, the chief of police has appointed a committee whose

duty it is to censor all films produced in the cheap theaters or penny arcades. As a result, the moving picture shows in Chicago are decent, some of them having even an educational value, the majority of the penny slot-machines have been removed and destroyed; the sale of obscene postal cards has been stopped, more than a million of such cards destroyed and the co-operation of the druggists' association has been secured in this matter, this association expelling and prosecuting all druggists who sell such cards. All liquor dealers have been warned not to sell to minors and have been furnished with cards calling their attention to this law. These cards are printed in the language of the foreign colony where the saloon is situated, and in this the committee had the help of the Liquor Dealers' Protective Association, which has warned all saloon-keepers that they will not protect them if they violate this law. Though there is a decided improvement in the general situation, much needs to be done, and it is largely a matter of education.

The practice of selling tobacco to boys has not been stopped, but has been substantially decreased, and the prosecution and conviction of 135 offenders has proved an example to all tobacco dealers. The co-operation of the Retail Fruit Dealers' Association in this matter has been a great help, as they have warned all the retail fruit dealers that they would not permit a violation of this law.

The dance halls have been watched, children under age found in them have been taken home, their parents warned not to send them again and the dance hall keepers have been prosecuted.

An investigation of the nine largest department stores in Chicago showed that the waiting rooms of these stores were used by girls out of work, who went to them to read the advertisements in the morning papers; that men visited these waiting rooms for immoral purposes and that many girls were decoyed, in this way, into a disreputable life. The committee called a meeting of the department store managers and insisted that the conditions be changed, also that matrons be appointed who were able to watch the visitors in the waiting rooms. This has been done and the condition of these

is now entirely different. In this connection a free employment bureau for women and girls has been established in the central district, with waiting rooms, where the visitors find books and papers, and notices of this bureau are given out by the matrons in all the department stores.

The pool rooms have been visited, the keepers of those which have harbored boys have been prosecuted or their licenses have been revoked. The committee is trying to interpret the laws of the municipality to the newly-arrived immigrant; they have had thousands of cards printed, calling the attention of the foreign parents to the fact that if they send their children to pick up coal, wood, brass or iron from the railroad tracks, they are guilty of stealing and will be prosecuted by this committee. These cards have been printed in various languages and are being distributed to every house in the foreign colony.

During this past year we have had 600 prosecutions and convictions, and while these prosecutions are important and necessary, it is far more important and much more difficult to forestall the necessity of prosecuting, and we realize that we must adopt preventive measures of a constructive character that will offset degrading conditions and immoral environment. We hear a great deal about race suicide and the children yet unborn, we are only just beginning to pay attention to the thousands already born. We do not know how many there are, for we have no national birth registration law; we do not know how many die at birth, or in childhood, because we have no national registration of deaths. We only know that thousands of children, battling against heredity and environment; struggling for fresh air, nourishing food and decent housing; put to work in factories and shops, their bodies stunted and their minds warped; are pushing their way up through a mass of obstacles towards manhood and womanhood.

THE IMMIGRANT YOUNG GIRL

BY MISS LILLIAN D. WALD, HENRY STREET SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK

(*Abstract.*)

I am loath to present only the phases incident to the transplantation of young women from their European homes to America which are painful to them, humiliating to us and equally disastrous to both. Nor am I in this brief treatment of a most important matter able to touch with any adequacy upon the situation as a whole.

However moral and potentially self-reliant the majority of the immigrants may be, there has been evidence to prove the need of protection to some from exploitation, and it seems incumbent upon us not only to protect but to guide the first year of their residence with us and this for reasons as urgent for the state as for the stranger.

The alien is in more danger of moral contamination than the rest of the community and is more liable to exploitation. "He is likely, through inability to discriminate, to locate in neighborhoods and houses which contain disorderly and immoral persons, to apply to unsafe agencies for employment, and to frequent places of amusement which are injurious."* In the case of the alien girl or woman the danger is increased, especially where she must become a bread-winner immediately upon arrival.

Women coming to the United States are numerous enough to create a situation in this respect which calls for serious consideration, and among them the number of unmarried women coming here to find work is a large proportion of the total.

The report of the Commission of Immigration shows that there arrived in 1908, 275,958 women, or 35.2 per cent. of the whole, and the tendency is for all immigrants to remain in the cities; while this is more true of women, perhaps, because less effort has been made to distribute unmarried women than unmarried men. The problem of the protection of women

*From report of New York Immigration Commission.

would thus appear to lie prominently within two fields; that of the municipality and of transportation.

As a result of public sentiment, the following provision became a part of the law of 1907: "Whoever shall keep, maintain, control, support or harbor in any house or other place, for the purpose of prostitution, or for any other immoral purpose, any alien woman or girl within three years after she shall have entered the United States, shall in every such case be deemed guilty of a felony, and, on conviction thereof, be imprisoned not more than five years, and pay a fine of not more than five thousand dollars."

Two months ago (April, 1909) this law was declared to be unconstitutional. The unconstitutionality was declared by Justice Brewer to be based upon the fact that penalizing the landlord was a matter that properly came under state control. From this decision three justices dissented (Holmes, Harlan and Moody). The decision still leaves open the question of the constitutionality of the provision against the importation of immoral women, but the effect is to throw the entire responsibility upon the state and necessitates some new means of interstate co-operation. The importers of immoral women, as well as those who further the traffic in this country, rely on the very inadequacy of the law. They have complete organization which enables them to send women to different states. It behooves those in the community who find legal and social protection an essential part of civilization to devise some method of regaining the ground lost through Justice Brewer's decision. Pending the adjustment of this, the eyes of city and state should be open to watch and guard the immigrant girl. This paper does not pretend to deal in detail with the social forces that are involved in a comprehensive understanding of preventive and social effort for her, but to draw attention more particularly to certain definite injurious conditions pertaining to the newly arrived immigrant girl which can be remedied.

To be effective, these remedies should begin on board the steamer, where unsophisticated women need to be guarded against those who wish to use the acquaintanceship to their detriment after they arrive. It is not unreasonable to fasten

responsibility upon the steamship companies who could and should employ proper matrons and the United States might have inspectors on board.

Under Mr. Watchorn's splendid administration, exceptional protective methods have been brought about at Ellis Island, so that other ports are now used by the alert dealers in vice, who sometimes succeed in deflecting their dupes to the ports not so well guarded. A number of philanthropic organizations of New York are represented on Ellis Island and the unaccompanied women, or those for whom relatives or friends have failed to call, are released to these societies, who provide them with shelter and often find them work. There are more than fifteen of these organizations and they are moderately effective in their work. The criticism that may be made is that in almost all instances protection ends after these transient guardians have sent the girls from the home and little or no record is kept of their whereabouts. No such protection is afforded at the other ports, although some nationalities are looked after. Wherever there is protection, it is at the port of entry. There is none at all beyond that point. Grave indifference to the most elementary means of protection is shown by the railway companies into whose care the girls are consigned. As an illustration of this, most of the immigrants sent over the Pennsylvania line to Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington are put on a late afternoon train which brings them into those cities at night. With a little thought and care it might be arranged that their arrival should be in the daytime.

The need of employment and the hope of finding it here, is usually the lure that brings the girls to this country, and this unfortunately is associated with most serious menaces to the girls as almost all are dependent for accomplishing their desire upon the employment agencies. Investigators of the New York State Immigration Commission found agents in several sections of the city who were willing, on payment of an extra fee, to send girls to work in disorderly houses. Since May, 1904, the commissioner of licenses (New York) has revoked fourteen licenses of employment agents for sending

girls to immoral places, of whom nine furnished immigrants chiefly.

Regulation of these agencies is most inadequate. In New York State, those in cities of the first and second class only come within the law. Immigrant girls in other parts of the state are in this respect without any protection at all.

Though this paper has made selection of certain prominent phases of the dangers to the immigrant girl, she is exposed to others. The social isolation of the girls, the limitation of available amusement and recreations, the pitiful dependence for society upon the casual pick-up acquaintance, the inferior housing and living conditions, the anti-social nature of the employment open to her, complete the circle of life of the homeless immigrant girl more particularly referred to in this paper. A definite and inclusive program is demanded by all the ethical standards of a moral society. Existing provisions for meeting such needs are too casual and too haphazard, though many indicate the direction that may be taken.

These recommendations are offered merely as suggestions for completer and fuller care; 1.—On the part of the federal government: (a) Protection on board boats. (b) Better supervision and co-ordination of philanthropic agencies at immigration stations. (c) Some requirement by the government of railways that immigrants are safely delivered at their destination. (d) Some further extension of federal powers designed to meet the objections in the Brewer decision. (e) The establishment of immigration bureaus at inland transfer stations as now in Chicago for the purpose of safeguarding immigrants and expediting their distribution beyond these points. 2.—State and Municipal: The establishment of a state immigration department or commission to deal with the problems of the immigrant and refer to proper agencies and societies all matters concerning the immigrant of which they should have cognizance and upon which they can act. 3.—Private Efforts: (a) The establishment of temporary homes at ports and centers where immigrant girls congregate other than in New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, where there are such in existence, and, where these homes have been established, better knowledge of the whereabouts and fuller protection of

the girls after they leave the homes. (b) Association of public-spirited citizens in committee or otherwise to secure enforcement of the laws which have been enacted. This committee should be national in its scope in order to ascertain and improve conditions in all parts of the country and analogous to the national child labor committee. Although there are many immigrant organizations they are local, racial or partisan for or against immigration, they do not deal with the immigrant in all parts of the country after arrival. The question of protection embraces assimilation, distribution, education, and calls for a disinterested and high-minded conception, a statesman-like treatment of the relation of the immigrant to the state and of the state to the immigrant.

Law Breakers

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY RIGHT REV. SAMUEL FALLOWS, D. D., LL.D., CHICAGO, ILL., PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF MANAGERS OF THE ILLINOIS STATE REFORMATORY, CHAIRMAN

The term Law Breakers is a comprehensive one, and is also somewhat relative and uncertain. To arrive at the ideas of the members of the large committee appointed to consider the subject, I corresponded with every one of them as to its divisions. At the same time I earnestly requested opinions and suggestions so that the report might in reality be a concrete embodiment of their views. I have been greatly gratified at the responses I have received.

This report, therefore, is not the report of the chairman himself, but is substantially that of the whole committee.

The following subjects, with some others, were indicated for presentation:

1. The Treatment of Misdemeanants.
2. The Indeterminate Sentence.
3. The Use of Probation in the Case of Convicted Law Breakers.
4. Relief for the Needy Members of the Families of Convicts.
5. The Administration of the Courts.
6. Preventive Measures in the Domain of Sociology.

It is the opinion of many thoughtful students of criminology that the more serious offenses against society are not increasing in proportion to the increase of our American population, although there may be a greater number of such offenses in later than in previous years.

It is also the decided opinion of many of these observers that the inrush of foreign-born peoples is not largely respon-

sible for the majority of the graver crimes which have been committed. The lesser infractions of law of which they may have been guilty have been ascribed to their ignorance of our customs and requirements.

M. M. Mallary, superintendent of the Illinois State Reformatory, kindly sent me an analysis of the different nationalities represented in that institution, with which I am identified as president of its Board of Managers.

Out of a population of 898, sixty-five were foreign-born. Two hundred and forty-three had foreign-born fathers and two hundred and eighteen had foreign-born mothers. Three hundred and seventy-two were from distinctively American households. It must be taken into the account that fully 45 per cent. of commitments are from the city of Chicago, in which such a large number of foreign-born citizens reside.

MISDEMEANANTS

Misdemeanors are multiplying because of the multiplied petty laws which are enacted both in the state and various municipalities. Our advancing civilization is responsible for this state of things. Expectoration on the sidewalk, jumping on a street car by boys for fun, giving or receiving a transfer in violation of a city ordinance, "flipping pennies," selling or buying cigarettes contrary to ordinance or statutes, are illustrations.

In the treatment of misdemeanants, Judge James Austin, Jr., of the Police Court of Toledo, Ohio, says: "I would never place men and women in the same prison, even though separated from contact with each other. I would have a work farm for misdemeanants guilty of some vice or sin and not a real crime. They should be graded and kept separate in prison and made to work. I believe wholesome, congenial work to be a sovereign cure."

Enlarging the idea of Judge Austin, Mrs. Mary Esther Ides of Chicago suggests the establishment of colonies to which misdemeanants shall be sentenced instead of going to jail. These colonies are to be beehives of industry. They are to embrace farms and factories and all kinds of man-

ufacturing institutions. The different members of these colonies are to receive wages for the work that they would perform. The wages would go—a certain percentage of them —to the support of the wives and families of these offenders.

THE INDETERMINATE SENTENCE

The overwhelming consensus of opinion among all advanced penologists is in favor of the indeterminate sentence.

The National Conference on Criminal Law and Criminology, just held in the city of Chicago, was largely attended by many eminent representatives of the lawyers, judges, governors, sociologists, psychologists, physicians and others of the entire country.

The Conference unanimously adopted the report of the Committee on Penal Treatment, of which Judge DeLacy of Washington, D. C., was chairman, regarding the indeterminate sentence. At his request, I presented in his absence the committee's conclusions. The report in substance recognized that there is inequality of sentences where fixed sentences prevail. In the case of short workhouse sentences, the indeterminate principle should not apply, but it should be applicable to all other sentences.

The Conference reflected the sentiments of your Committee on Law Breakers in emphasizing the importance of proper education and industrial training of offenders while in custody and the equal importance of having a sufficient number of efficient parole officers to supervise the conduct of the offenders when released on parole, and to advise and aid them in their efforts for rehabilitation. It further coincided with your committee in recommending the collection of statistics and authoritative information concerning the working of the indeterminate sentence and parole laws in the states where they are now in force, with a view of urging their adoption, enlargement and enforcement in other states.

A bill was passed at the session of the Illinois Legislature just adjourned, modifying the indeterminate sentence law now in operation, by giving to the courts the right to fix the maximum sentence instead of having it declared by statute as

at the present time. The arguments for its passage were based upon the alleged fact that the Pardon Board, which is the Parole Board of the two state penitentiaries, was continuing prisoners in these institutions beyond a just period. Governor Deneen vetoed the bill because of some unconstitutional provisions which it contained.

In connection with the general discussion of the subject both in the legislature and the state, it was found that the average length of imprisonment in these state prisons was longer under the indeterminate than under the fixed sentence. It was further brought to light that nearly all the judges of Cook county, including the city of Chicago, favored the bill on account of this prolonged imprisonment of the offenders. It is interesting to know that the indeterminate sentence and parole laws were previously criticized by some of the judges and one prominent newspaper of Chicago, for the reason claimed, that convicts were released too soon through these laws and allowed to go back to their ways of crime. It is very difficult to reconcile these opposites. One possible explanation may be that something of a personal character relating to the Board of Pardons was involved in the question.

I have just learned from Mr. H. Huson that a few days ago the legislature of Oklahoma enacted a law prepared by our honored and lamented co-worker, the Honorable Samuel J. Barrows, making sentences indeterminate in every particular, probably the only law of its kind in the United States.

I have been hindered in my purpose to present to the Conference a summary of the various forms of the indeterminate sentence in the different states. This would include a consideration of the maximum and minimum terms; whether the maximum term is made to depend upon the statutory term; whether the minimum term is prescribed by the court; whether a fixed maximum term is prescribed for offenses generally and the minimum term made to depend on the conduct and industry of the prisoner, etc. Such a summary, in the opinion of Fred G. Pettigrove and others, would be of great value in

the way of information. This might be given by another committee at the next meeting of the Conference.

Captain M. P. Evans, superintendent of the Bureau of Identification, regarding the indeterminate sentence, says: "My reason for having the jury fix only the question of guilt or innocence is that, generally speaking, the average juryman is not capable of fixing a just punishment to fit the crime and the criminal. The average juryman is perhaps called upon once in a lifetime to serve for two weeks, and in those two weeks perhaps serves as a juror in a few cases. Such a man has not the experience to fix the punishment as has a judge, who has the experience of years in presiding over such cases.

"For example, several years ago the crime of rape, which came under the parole law, was changed back to the definite sentence, because some people believed that the usual term, as modified by the Board of Parole, was not severe enough.

"The following are a few examples of jury sentences during the year ending 1908:

> Edward S. was sentenced for life on March 21 on a charge of raping Mabel M., a 17-year-old girl; while Roy H., charged with raping Ida B., 15 years old, and also crime against nature, was sentenced to one year on March 28, 1908.
>
> Gus P. and Nicholas P. were each sentenced on June 28, one to five and the other to two years on two charges of rape on two girls, Edith McK. and Margaret P., both 14 years old; while Jennie M., who was convicted as an accessory in the same case, was sentenced to twenty years.
>
> Jefferson M., a colored man, was sentenced to twenty years on January 25, 1908, on a charge of raping Mrs. Cora P.; while Michael A. received one year on a charge of raping Mrs. Jacob F., who was 58 years old, and in the assault broke two of the woman's ribs.

I could cite you several other cases just as ridiculous as those are, which go to show that the fixing of the sentence should be left to the judges rather than to leave it to a jury."

ADULT PROBATION

Probation is a method of proving whether the offender may yet be saved, if given another opportunity, when sur-

rounded by uplifting influences and still held under the authority of the court. It has been truly held to be a safe and effective method of reform and one that is destined to do a great work in the saving of men and the protection of society.

The ideal of the probation system would be realized if no person were sent to prison who could be dealt with by it with a due regard to his interests and those of the public. This, of course, is not possible in the present condition of affairs.

From time to time this subject has been discussed in previous conferences, the reference to which may be found in the valuable, I may say invaluable, "Guide to Study of Charities and Correction," by Alexander Johnson, the efficient secretary of this body. These references indicate the progress which has been made in the adoption of the probation principle growing out of the experience of Father Cook in Boston many years ago.

It is safe to say with one of our judges, that no reform in the administration of the criminal law of this country has met with a more widespread popular approval, and with more rapid recognition in the statutes, than has the probation system. The practice of placing offenders against our criminal laws upon probation prior to 1900 had received no legal recognition, except in the case of one or two different states. The statutes of more than twenty-five states now authorize probation for juvenile offenders.

As far as I have been able to ascertain, about twelve states have adopted adult probation laws, Georgia being the last on the list.

Massachusetts, which first established the adult probation system, enacted in 1908, on the recommendation of Judge Charles A. de Courcey of the Superior Court, a law with many interesting features. It provides for the appointment by the chief justice of the Superior Court of a probation commission consisting of two Superior Court justices and one justice of a lower court, one practicing attorney who holds an official relation to the city of Boston, and one public-spirited citizen who has been interested in philanthropic matters

for a great many years. Under the act creating the commission, a deputy commissioner is appointed to be the executive officer. This law has not been in operation long enough to judge of its efficiency, but from appearances and in the nature of things, it seems likely to improve the probation service.

Judge de Courcey states that "while still favoring the appointment of probation officers by the judge, our investigations show that ideal officers are not always appointed. Later our commission may ask for power to examine candidates with methods now applied by civil service commissions."

I make the following quotation from the annual report of the Indiana State Board of Charities, indicating something of the results and giving some opinions as to the value of the law in that state both pro and con:

> "The new law relating to adult probation has already shown the wisdom of the legislature in its enactment. Most of the judges approve it. Some of them are very enthusiastic over the results secured.
>
> "Forty-nine counties are included in the circuits of the judges heard from, and the law has been in operation in but forty-four of the forty-nine. In the first year of its enforcement, two hundred and eighteen convicted persons were released under its provisions—two hundred and two men and sixteen women. These two hundred and eighteen persons, had they not been released on suspended sentence, would have been sent to the following institutions: Indiana Reformatory, 88; State Prison, 32; Womans' Prison, 5; county jail or workhouse, 91; unaccounted for, 2.
>
> "It will be interesting to know the opinions of these forty-four judges. Six are opposed to the law. One of these says it is an outrage on circuit courts; another that it is a delusion and a snare, as it virtually repeals penalties, makes the discretion of the judge the law, leaving it liable to be enforced differently in different courts, as the several judges see it. Another fears it will not be productive of the good intended by its advocates. On the other hand, thirty-five of the judges speak favorably of the law and say the results are good. One of these says: 'It is a good law and those suspended are doing nicely.' Another speaks well of the law, but suggests amendments. Still another says it is a wise law, especially

in case of a first conviction, and in instances where the offense has been committed in order to secure food for the family and where the offender has really made an effort to get employment and has failed. Another claims that the law is absolutely necessary and admirable. Another is hopeful, but says it is too soon to say definitely. Eight advocate caution in its use."

Judge Austin, Jr., says: "In probating women I commit them to the custody of a woman who is willing to take them and give them real home surroundings for a time. There is no place like home, be it ever so humble. A public institution is my last resort. I believe the probation officers should be chosen by the judge. I believe the system is most inefficient where said officers are political appointees or elected to fill their positions."

He also states that "only 15 to 20 per cent. of my male probationers relapse, and between 40 and 50 per cent. of females." The per cent. of relapses was much smaller in the report of Judge Cleland of Chicago.

A bill for adult probation in Illinois was carefully prepared by Judge Stephen A. Foster of the Municipal Court of Chicago, and introduced into the Legislature which has just adjourned. It received the hearty approval of the Civic Federation of Chicago and of the Illinois State Conference of Charities. Many of the judges and the most influential newspapers of the state favored it. In spite of this influence it failed of passage. Another effort to have it enacted into law will, however, be made at the beginning of the next General Assembly.

The Adult Probation bill drawn by Dr. Samuel J. Barrows for the Legislature of Oklahoma was also defeated in that body during the present month.

The Maine Legislature passed this year "an act to authorize the courts to suspend or continue for sentence on probation and to provide for the appointment of probation officers." The act is chapter 263 of the Public Laws of Maine, 1909. The probation officers are to be appointed by the governor on the recommendation of the County Commissioners.

RELIEF FOR THE NEEDY FAMILIES OF CONVICTS

Closely allied with the subject of Adult Probation is that of relief for the needy members of the families of convicts. As a result of extensive correspondence with officers of institutions and others on this question, the unanimous opinion is that one of the greatest needs for the proper care of dependent wives and children is some provision whereby the result of the labor of the husband and the father could be used for the support of the members of his family. And one of the chief reasons given for adult probation is the possibility of the continued support of dependent families, instead of depriving them of the help of the law breakers.

Mrs. Emma O'Sullivan, superintendent of the Ontario Reformatory for Women, Toronto, says: "I have had women in my institution beg of me to let them have materials sent them by husbands or some interested friend that they might make up clothing for their needy children and I certainly would advocate that convicts be allowed to help their dependent relatives at home either by work done after government hours or by a portion of their earnings being set aside for the purpose."

Judge James Austin suggests that a per diem be allowed, not so large as to induce the destitute to commit crime in order to get its benefit, to be applied through public officials to the support of a prisoner's family.

Superintendent Randall of the Minnesota Reformatory at St. Cloud, has just telegraphed me that the Legislature of that state has passed a law by which Managing Boards may allow earnings for the benefit of the prisoner, his family, or dependent relatives, with no limitation as to the amount. The passage of the bill has been secured by the untiring efforts of Superintendent Randall, Senator A. D. Stevens and Mr. H. Wolfer.

The American Prison Association at its last meeting in Richmond appointed a committee to give the matter full consideration and make a full report at the next annual meeting of the association.

As in the District of Columbia, so in other parts of the country, every able-bodied man, neglectful of his family, should be compelled to labor for their support whether he is confined in a penal institution or not.

The inflexible rule should be for every such man to work every working hour of the day for his dependent ones.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE COURTS

The consensus of opinion of the committee, as well as of many criminologists who were consulted, was to make conviction easier and surer. The judge should spend more time in getting at the real character of the guilty one than in the trial for his crime. He should endeavor, in case he is empowered to fix the sentence, so to adjust it that it shall tend to the uplifting and reforming of the criminal.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES IN THE DOMAIN OF SOCIOLOGY

Among the distinctively preventive measures of crime in the domain of sociology, excluding the workings of the Juvenile Court and such institutions as Feehanville, Glenwood, the St. Charles School near Chicago, and kindred places for the reclamation of juvenile delinquents, are the clubs and schools and homes for destitute boys in various portions of the country.

Instance two excellent types of this character:

(1) The Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago, which is doing excellent work through its prevention officers. The association is organized to guard homeless children from the corruption of the cheap lodging houses; provide recreation centers; stop the selling of cocaine, absinthe and other similar preparations; to develop all that will prevent children from going into crime.

(2) The Chrystie Street House for Homeless Boys in New York City, under the care of Mr. Wallace Gillpatrick, its superintendent. I may briefly sum up the salient features of the very practical suggestions he has sent me on the problem of the homeless boys. In every large city there is a multitude

of boys from sixteen years of age on into the early twenties who are not effectually reached either by the school or by philanthropy. In New York the state punishes homelessness with imprisonment and the penalty is rigidly enforced. This means the herding of the boys with hardened offenders in the jail. There is no place in that great state, outside of a penal institution, where illiterate and industrially unfit boys over sixteen years of age can be admitted for one year's residence with free schooling and free industrial training.

Multitudes of boys are debarred, by long working hours and the weary drudgery incident to maintaining a bare existence, from attending public night schools and night industrial classes offered by private philanthropy. Not until such boys have committed a felony are they eligible for an institution that will fit them to become self-supporting. For these boys a chain of small houses on the plan of the Chrystie Street House is recommended by Mr. Gillpatrick. The general plan embraces the management by a well-experienced man of a house containing not more than twelve boys at a time. His duties would be to ascertain whether the boy has abandoned a good home and if so, to arrange for his return; to aid the industrially efficient boy (temporarily in misfortune) to secure employment; to afford opportunity for work to boys susceptible of education and training; to secure admission to the proper institution for inefficient boys.

The sphere of operation of such houses need not be confined to New York. Every large city should have them. Private philanthropy at first would have to meet the financial need. Later the state might see the great importance of such homes and provide, in part at least, for their maintenance.

I also corresponded with many men eminent in the sphere of sociology and criminology on this general subject of Law Breakers for their views. Before briefly presenting the answer of one of these, I may say a word, which, although seemingly one of divergency, yet is not irrelevant to the subject.

The Church, using the term in its broadest signification, has sometimes been criticized for not measuring up to the

vast and imperative needs which are involved in the important questions we are discussing. But I wish to say most emphatically, that the Church, through its individual members or in its various collective capacities, or through the influences radiating from it, has initiated and is carrying on all the great reforms of the age. In this true meaning of the term, the Church enacts the laws, interprets the laws and executes the laws. The Church safeguards the home, protects the child, honors labor, humanizes the employer, commiserates poverty, raises the fallen, enthrones justice, glorifies charity and puts beneath all the eternal and universal principle of love to God and love to man.

It has not been perfect in doing this, but it is going on to perfection, slow though it may be. And when that which is perfect is come, the mission of this Conference will come to an end.

Now for the reason of this reference to the Church. My highly esteemed friend, so well known to us all, Judge Ben B. Lindsey of Denver, Colo., writes me of his opinion regarding some violators of the law. He says: "Our chief law breakers, who have done the most damage in this community, have been the men at the head of the big public service corporations, seeking special privileges. These men have no conscience when it comes to getting what they want without paying for it. To do this they enter into a sort of silent political partnership with the thieves, gamblers and saloon-keepers, and in return for political influence and power, they are permitted to violate the laws more or less with immunity or impunity. The men higher up—the big lawless business grafters —I very much regret to say, are pillars in the Church. I have found the Church, as a rule, very open in denouncing the small end of the partnership, but very guarded in even referring to the big end."

These Denver law breakers and all others of their class do not properly come within the scope of this National Conference of Charities and Correction. They should be turned over to the American Prison Association to make the close personal acquaintance and enjoy the official hospitality of the wardens

of the penitentiaries found on its list of members, or else they should stand before their respective ecclesiastical tribunals and, profoundly penitent, solemnly promise forever after "to cease to do evil and learn to do well."

I close this report by referring to the fact that today, June 12, is the birthday of the adoption of this glorious flag whose stars and stripes gleam before you. It is the flag of a reunited nation with a divine destiny and a divine duty. Beneath it are to be worked out some of the most momentous problems which mankind is to solve. But there is one other flag, one only, on which the sun never sets, with the same colors as our own, the red, white and blue. Differently blended are these hues of heaven in that older ensign, but they speak alike Freedom's jubilant language.

Just before the first shot was fired in the Spanish-American War, there flashed over the cable the ringing words of Alfred Austin, the poet laureate of England, to give to the United States the sympathy of the mother country in our determination to add the star of another republic to the constellation of the nations.

"What is the voice I hear
From over the western sea?
Speak, O Sentinel, from out Cape Clear
And say what the voice may be.
'Tis a free proud people speaking loud
To a people proud and free.

And it says to them, Kinsmen, hail!
We severed have been too long.
Now let us have done with a worn-out tale—
The tale of an ancient wrong;
And our friendship last long as life doth last
And be stronger than death is strong.

Now fling them out to the breeze,
The shamrock, and thistle and rose,
And the Star Spangled Banner unfurl with these
A message to friends and foes.
Wherever the sails of peace are seen
And wherever the way wind blows.

A message to bond and thrall to wake,
For, wherever we come, we twain,
The throne of the tyrant shall rock and quake,
And his menace be void and vain,
For ye are lords of a strong, young land,
And we are lords of the main.

Then let us have done with a worn-out tale—
The tale of an ancient wrong,
And our friendship last long as life doth last
And be stronger than death is strong."

Your committee representing the personnel of this Conference is composed of members living beneath the American flag and the Union Jack. This tells the story, that not only are we inter-religious (as yesterday's wonderful meeting in the Star Theater bore witness), but that we are international. And will not the time soon come when, to draw as a magnet, constantly increasing numbers from all parts of our common continent, this splendid organization shall be announced as "The International Conference of Charities and Correction."

THE DELINQUENT CHILD IN ENGLAND

BY WALTER LINDLEY, M. D., LL.D., MEDICAL DIRECTOR OF CALIFORNIA HOSPITAL, LOS ANGELES, PRESIDENT BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL

England has been making great advances in the last decade both in the prevention of delinquency and in the care and redemption of the delinquent child. This spirit of the English people has been crystallized and materialized in the Children's Act of 1908, which came in force in April of this year. One of the most fertile causes of depraved childhood and criminal adult life is the almost universal habit of drink among both men and women of the laboring classes. The law just referred to includes a provision which makes it a crime for children under fourteen to be taken or admitted to a public bar. Heretofore

the mother would take her little child to the bar and give it a teaspoonful or two from the gin she was drinking herself. This law has been passed never to be revoked, although the newspapers of London are almost daily publishing plaintive protests against it. Another section of this Children's Act provides a severe penalty for giving a child under the age of five any intoxicating liquor except upon the order of a duly-qualified medical practitioner. It also provides that if a person sells to a person apparently under the age of sixteen years any cigarettes, or cigarette papers, whether for his own use or not, he shall be liable to a fine of two pounds. It is now nothing unusual to see a woman with her baby in her arms standing on the sidewalk by the door of the bar and being handed out her glass of gin by the bartender. Almost all the bartenders in England are women, and, in that direction at least, women are on an equality with men. At noon or night factory women, young and old, and women from all kinds of employment, and women from their homes, can be seen rushing into these barrooms and standing there taking their drinks, or sitting at the convenient table, and drinking just the same as a man.

The next step which will do much toward preventing juvenile delinquency will be the prohibiting of any woman to attend bar, or to drink in a public bar. Such a law has already been broached and will do much toward sending the mother, who is out at work, home early to her children, and toward keeping her maternal instincts from being nullified by drink.

Another great step toward the prevention of juvenile delinquency has been the rapid development of the public school system of England. In London alone there are about 600,000 children in the public schools. Compulsory attendance is required from five to fourteen, but children over three may be admitted where the mother cannot stay at home. Besides the children in the public schools, there are 150,000 in the private and church schools of London. Connected with the schools are voluntary children's care committees which are composed of teachers, mothers and fathers who look after the general welfare of poor children and bring before the educational authorities the case of all children needing free meals and other assistance. At times there have been as high as 55,000

children in these elementary schools receiving free meals. The months when this reaches the highest number are February and March. Special care is taken to give the girls practical instruction in cooking and other branches of domestic science.

Another very important voluntary organization is the Apprenticeship Association. These associations are quite numerous and their business is to assist the children to find skilled employment when they leave school. These associations have the co-operation and assistance of the government and do much toward preventing delinquency.

Other important voluntary organizations are the After Care Committees, which assist parents in finding careers for defective children. Ill health and impoverished childhood are great causes of delinquency. Children in such conditions are naturally backward in their studies and drift to truancy and then to crime. This is proven by the report of the Anthropometric Committee of the British Association, which shows that industrial school boys at the age of fourteen are nearly seven inches shorter of stature and twenty-four and three-quarter pounds lighter in weight than juveniles of the same age in the great public schools such as Eton, Harrow and Rugby. With this fact in view the educational authorities of London have established outdoor schools in different districts of the metropolis. The official title is Open Air Schools. Each school contains about eighty pupils between the ages of eight and fourteen years (boys and girls) selected by the medical officer from the children in adjacent schools who appear to be likely to derive benefit from the open air treatment. These children are not backward in their school work because of defective intelligence, but rather of inherited weakness, impaired vitality, improper feeding and unfavorable surroundings. Their anemic condition is due to bad food as often as to lack of food. They come to the school for their breakfast, have a good warm luncheon and then have an afternoon meal before they start home. The city authorities pay railway fares and furnish the meals free if parents are absolutely indigent. If the parents are able they pay 2s. 6d. per week. When the weather is fair the children are taught entirely in the open and only come into the class room when it is too cold or too windy. Besides

the usual studies they are taught gardening and are brought in touch as closely as possible with Mother Nature. One important point in these schools is that as soon as they have luncheon they lie down for two hours, getting absolute rest. The children attend these schools six days in the week, going to their homes every evening.

Another valuable preventative of delinquency that is carried out most thoroughly in London is the evening school. In the ordinary evening schools the principal subjects of instruction are shorthand, gymnastics, reading, writing and arithmetic, dressmaking, bookkeeping, manual training, vocal music, first aid, home nursing, French cookery and millinery. In regard to the science, art and commercial "centers" the instruction is chiefly of a commercial character, as the majority of the students are engaged in commercial pursuits. Common subjects are shorthand, bookkeeping, French, typewriting, German and English language. There are, however, more advanced classes in such subjects as accountancy, banking and currency, commercial and municipal law, machinery of business, Spanish, Italian, Russian and Esperanto. The instruction in science and art includes chemistry, machine drawing, mathematics and physiology. The instruction in art relates chiefly to light and shade, model, freehand, blackboard and perspective. The ordinary schools are open generally on three evenings a week, between the hours of 7:30 and 9:30, and the "centers" on four evenings a week for about two and a half hours each evening. The fees charged to the students are 1s. the session in the ordinary schools, 2s. 6d. the session in the commercial "centers," and 5s. the session in the science and art centers. There are, however, about seventy evening schools in poor districts where no fees are charged, and students under sixteen are admitted to the other schools if unable to pay the fee. There are 128,000 students in London enrolled in these evening schools.

Inspectors, who are called school attendants, are devoting their time constantly to visiting children whose names are given them as absent from public schools. In the event of illness no steps are taken, but if the children are truant the parents are warned and if the truancy continues the parents are summoned before a magistrate who makes an order for

the children to attend the school convenient. Should truancy continue after this the parents are again summoned before the magistrate, and if it is proved that the parents are to blame they are fined, and if the children are determined truants an order is made for their admission to a truant school where they are kept, fed and clothed for some months, a small order for payment being made upon the parents. After a short stay in these schools the children are allowed to go home, but if their truancy or delinquency continues and it is proved that they are beyond the control of their parents, they are sent to industrial schools where they may be detained to the age of sixteen. The numbers in the truant schools of England on December 31, 1907, were 1,125, with 2,568 out on parole, or as the English term it, "license."

Besides all this work that is being done for developing the health, self-respect and morality of the children of England that has been mentioned, there are many powerful philanthropic movements, the mention of which must be omitted. One is the Boys' Brigade movement, a non-sectarian organization, in which 25,000 of the younger boys of London are enlisted.

Now, coming to the care of the child who is actually delinquent, there are three classes of schools:

(1) The Day Industrial School.

(2) The Industrial School.

(3) The Reformatory.

Both the day industrial and the industrial (residential) are for delinquent children under fourteen, while to the reformatory school the delinquent child between fourteen and sixteen is committed. Where the delinquent child under fourteen has a home that is fairly decent the magistrate may commit him to the day industrial school. They go to these schools at the time their parents go to work, that is, from 6 to 7 a. m. Some arrive at the school as early as 6. The pupil first takes a swimming bath, then has his breakfast. He gets the ordinary school branches, and the boys are taught some trade, while the girls are taught sewing and cooking. In each of these schools there is a band and a special feature is made of teaching singing. They have their three meals at the school and usually go home about 6 p. m. The consensus of the statement of the superin-

tendents of these day industrial schools is that after the child has been with them for three months he very rarely plays truant, for which there are four reasons:

(1) The good, nourishing meals.

(2) The good opportunity of a trade.

(3) The instrumental and vocal music.

(4) The fear of being sent to a residential industrial school.

As one of the superintendents said, it is far better for the child to keep up his connection with his home. He is much better prepared to face the world if he is not taken out of the world. If the child does have to look after his little brothers and sisters and run errands mornings and evenings, that is part of his education. The boys in these schools wear no uniforms, but a philanthropic society provides good clothing for them when the parents are not able to supply them. Shoemaking and harnessmaking were formerly trades that were taught boys, but now these have been made almost useless, as the shoemaking industry has decayed so rapidly. In England only 1-15th of 1 per cent of the boots and shoes are hand made, and this small fraction are principally for deformed feet. The use of automobiles has reduced the amount of harness manufactured over 50 per cent, and there is very little opening for the boy who has been taught that trade. They are experimenting now for trades to take the place of these.

Hon. T. R. Robertson, chief inspector of reformatory and industrial schools of Great Britain, speaks most highly of the value of these day industrial schools. There are now twenty of these day schools under his inspection—fifteen in England and five in Scotland. The number of children in attendance at these day schools on December 31, 1907, was: Boys, 1,951; girls, 1,232.

The residential industrial school is very similar to the state industrial schools of the United States, except that no children are admitted over fourteen. The following children may be committed to these industrial schools:

(1) Those found begging,
(2) Found wandering and not having any home or settled place of abode,

(3) Found destitute, not being an orphan and having both parents undergoing penal servitude or imprisonment,
(4) Found under the care of parents or guardians who by reason of criminal or drunken habits are unfit to have the care of the child,
(5) The daughter of the father who has been convicted of an unnamed crime,
(6) Who frequents the company of a reputed thief or any prostitute,
(7) Who is lodging or residing in a house used by any prostitute,
(8) Where a child apparently under the age of twelve is charged before a court with an offense punishable in the case of an adult by penal servitude, or a less punishment,
(9) Where a child apparently of the age of 12 or 13 years, who has not previously been convicted, is charged before a petty sessional court with an offense punishable in the case of an adult by penal servitude or a less punishment, and the court is satisfied that the child should be sent to a certified school, but, having regard for the special circumstances of the case, should not be sent to a certified reformatory school, and is also satisfied that the character and antecedents of the child are such that it will not exercise an evil influence over the other children in an industrial school, the court may order the child to be sent to the industrial school, having previously ascertained that the managers are willing to receive said child. On application of the managers of the industrial school said child must at any time be transferred to a reformatory school,
(10) Where the parent or guardian of a child proved to a court that he is unable to control the child and that he desires the child to be sent to an industrial school, the court, if satisfied, may order him sent to an industrial school.

In the case of a child committed to an industrial school, the length of such commitment may be such as the court may deem proper for the teaching and training of the child, but not in any case extending beyond the time when the child will, in the opinion of the court, attain the age of sixteen years.

There are provisions for paroling the children from these schools. Every child sent to an industrial school shall, from the expiration of the period of his detention, remain to the age of eighteen under the supervision of the managers of the school.

A great majority of these industrial schools are philanthropic organizations to which the government and the city, or county, from which the child is sent, pay so much per week per child.

One thing to be noted especially is the didactic part of the instruction in these schools in all work done. As a fair explanation I place as an appendix the syllabus of instruction for 1908-09 for those who are learning to be *bakers, blacksmiths,*

tailors and *carpenters,* as it is of great value to all who are teaching delinquent children.*

Thirty-nine in every one hundred of the children in the English industrial schools are either totally or partially orphaned, which would indicate that they are descended from a somewhat degenerate stock. The natural consequence is that the physical basis of the mental life is in a worse condition, as a whole, among the English children in industrial schools than among the ordinary population at the same stage of existence. Further, the incapacity to control the child would indicate a weak mentality, and as this incapacity is exhibited among 44 per cent. of the parents of juveniles in the industrial schools and reformatories, this weakness of will is reproduced among these juveniles in the shape of incapacity to control themselves.

As an English authority says, mental inheritance is as real as bodily inheritance, and a high percentage of these children are below an average normal standard in general mental power.

Fifty-one per cent. of the inmates of the English industrial schools are either illegitimate, or have one or both parents dead, or are the offspring of criminals or parents who have deserted them. In the reformatories the ratio is 53 per cent.

In investigating the effects of illegitimacy on juvenile delinquency, Dr. W. Douglas Morrison, the gifted rector of Marylebone, London, discovered that illegitimacy tends toward the minimum in those parts of England where the population is most dense, and toward the maximum where the population is most sparse. In other words, in rural districts where there is an absence of prostitution there is a high rate of illegitimacy. The doctor did not find that illegitimacy had a marked relation to juvenile crime.

Juvenile reformatory schools of Great Britain are similar to the industrial schools in their equipment and work. The difference in the two classes of schools is that no child over fourteen can be committed to the industrial schools, while delinquent children between fourteen and sixteen must be committed to the reformatories, and the magistrate has the privilege of committing children convicted of the most serious crimes, who are between twelve and fourteen, to either indus-

*See Appendix, p. 520.

trial schools or reformatories. In the industrial schools vagrants, or those who have a tendency to vagrancy, predominate, while in the reformatory the thieves predominate. At the end of 1907 there were forty-four of these reformatory schools; thirty-seven of these were in England and seven in Scotland. At that time there were in these reformatories 4,057 boys and 569 girls.

These reformatories are none of them governmental or municipal. They have all been established and are controlled by philanthropic voluntary organizations. The national government and the municipalities pay so much per week per capita for children committed to these schools. This amounts to about 8s., or $2 per week. The balance for the support of these institutions is raised by voluntary contribution. In turn, the government collects from the parents of these children, who are able, a small amount. For the year 1907 the government collected from parents of juvenile offenders in reformatory schools, $40,000.

Aside from the work and sport, the latter being carefully and persistently encouraged, the managers of reformatories and industrial schools lay great stress on systematic physical exercise and gymnastics. These are all done with a snap and celerity and rapidity that completely negative the idea that the English people are slow. In most of the schools they have gymnastics of an evening, and in one of the juvenile reformatories the boys were put through these physical exercises every evening from 8 to 10 o'clock. The superintendent was very enthusiastic. He said there was no trouble about the boys sleeping well after that. He thinks it is inviting trouble to put city boys to bed at 8 o'clock. By taking these exercises they immediately, on touching their beds, go to sleep and do no harm to themselves or any person else.

Another feature of this school is that the boys who are learning tailoring sit on stools beside the table and do not double their legs up in the Turkish manner usually adopted. The teacher of tailoring said they were a great deal better off physically and they did more work than when bent over with their legs crossed.

In these reformatories they have real rifles and the boys are drilled in the manual of arms and prizes are given for

the best marksmanship. When a boy leaves an industrial school or reformatory to work at a trade the English government presents him with a full equipment of tools for that trade.

While teaching the various trades, yet the great aim of these institutions in dealing with the boys from London and other cities is to fit them for the army, and a very large percentage go into the army. In one of the schools the superintendent looked up his records and found that for the last few years over 60 per cent. have become soldiers. Quite a percentage of these became members of the army bands. A smaller number go into the navy. It is the opinion of the English school officials that the training in the industrial schools and reformatories especially equips a boy for obedience, promptness and efficiency as a soldier.

The English reformatories are all built and furnished in a very plain, unpretentious manner, but they seem to look thoroughly after the health of the children, as the remarkably low death rate would indicate. Besides the medical attendance, the teeth of the children are frequently inspected and treated by expert dentists.

There is without doubt an admirable sympathy between the instructors and officers of these institutions and the boys and girls themselves.

The government and municipal inspectors make frequent visits and annually publish reports in which they either commend or adversely criticize, as the conditions justify. Before a magistrate can commit a boy or girl to a reformatory or industrial school, it must be certified by the government inspector as being a well conducted institution. In the event of the inspector finding afterward that the school is not doing its work satisfactorily, he withdraws the certificate. An institution that has been thus disgraced and is no longer certified must necessarily close.

During the last few years England has adopted what they call the Borstal plan of caring for young adult criminals; that is, those who are convicted between sixteen and twenty-five. They frankly acknowledge that they are indebted to the United States for all their ideas in this new departure, which rounds up their system for the care of juvenile and young adult crim-

inals. This plan was enthusiastically put in force on the recommendation of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise of the Home Office after he had visited the institutions at Concord, Massachusetts and Elmira, New York.

RESULTS

The number of juveniles sent out from industrial schools during the three years 1888 and 1890, inclusive, amounted to 11,396. Out of this number 86 per cent. of the boys did well and 83 per cent. of the girls. An official report just issued shows that from the largest industrial schools of England, of the boys who were discharged during 1904, 1905 and 1906, 89 per cent. are known to be in permanent employment, 6 per cent. have been convicted of crime and 5 per cent. are unknown.

The reports from the reformatories are not quite so favorable, but come within a very small percentage of the above figures.

The noteworthy feature of the care of the dependent and delinquent children of England is that it is in the hands of the people themselves. They do not pay their taxes, or as they call it, their rates, and leave it all to the government. They take a deep active personal interest in the welfare of the unfortunate. Pauperism in England is decreasing; mortality from consumption is decreasing, and crime itself is decreasing. The strong, independent, self-assertion of England is being turned toward the redemption and uplifting of her own.

OUTDOOR WORK FOR WOMEN PRISONERS

BY DR. KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN, BEDFORD, N. Y.

Some four years ago, at the meeting of the American Prison Association at Lincoln, Neb., I spoke on the subject of outdoor work for women; a repetition of much that I said then will be unavoidable and perhaps excusable in view of the added experience.

At the present time there is an effort in a number of states to secure reformatory institutions for women suggested by the type of reformatory institutions we have in New York.

The strides which the probation work is making in our cities where the probation law for adults has been adopted make us very proud. But this has changed somewhat the character of women who are committed to our institution. The lowering of the type in the last few years has been very marked. In New York City an increasing number of women are put on probation or discharged on suspended sentence. Those who are committed to an institution are the ones who either have failed on probation, have committed a second offense after having been put on probation for the first, have served terms in the workhouse, penitentiary, or various private institutions for girls and women, or who are so markedly unfit for probation that probation officers and judges alike realize the hopelessness of attempting it. Twenty per cent. of the women of the class just named are abnormal.

Last year, at the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the superintendent of one of our large state reformatories for men made the statement that reformatories, in his judgment, might hope to reform ninety per cent. of the normal men committed to their care. I wonder how many in that audience noted the word "normal"; thereby hangs much that is likely to be overlooked by the casual reader or hearer. We often hear it claimed that our reformatories can reform anywhere above eighty per cent. of their inmates, but in my judgment this is misleading unless we take the precaution to insert the word "normal."

It seems to me that the time has come when the general public, in order not to misjudge results, should understand definitely what we mean by our statements as to percentages of reform. I think it is the undivided testimony of the officials of our reformatories that since the extension of the probation system to adult offenders there has been a great change in the average capacity of the individuals sent to both men's and women's reformatories.

The twenty per cent. of abnormal above referred to we divide for our own purposes into four classes: First, mental

defectives. Second, moral imbeciles, many of whom are capable of a considerable amount of book education and industrial training and effort, when under supervision, but not capable of judging right from wrong in any way that would prevent them from committing wrong. Third, those whom I believe will sooner or later end in an insane asylum unless they learn self-control, (really cases of incipient insanity). They are young women who will become insane because of giving way habitually to evil passions which beset them. Most of the girls between the ages of fifteen and thirty have been leading immoral lives and their crime has been incident to their immoral living. This immoral living has told on their nervous systems and a large percentage are not sound physically or nervously. It is difficult for them to sit still for any length of time, to engage in school work or in any industrial occupation which requires concentration. Many have been addicted to the use of narcotics. They don't sleep well, have no appetite, have been eating irregularly and insufficiently, indulging in stimulating drink, and they cannot take plain, wholesome food. With the inability to sleep and to eat and to sit still you cannot hope to do much for their reformation. So you have to get them into some sort of physical condition and get their nerves quieted. We have a trained woman physician of the highest class as resident officer, and also a highly trained nurse and a capable teacher of physical exercise. The resident physician makes a thorough examination of every woman on entrance to the institution, and any outdoor work must depend on that diagnosis; and the amount and kind of work is prescribed for her. During the early weeks and months we try as far as possible to give her all the time we can in the open air. After she works half a day for a while in the open air she sleeps well and her appetite returns. After a few weeks or months she is able to sit quietly in the school room and do something in the way of study, and get some discipline, and learn something of industrial efficiency.

Gardening is the first thing we think of as outdoor work. We do all the gardening except the plowing. We are unfortunate in not having good farming land, but we raise all the vegetables for summer use and some for winter use. We also raise flowers and beautify the grounds by planting shrubs. We haven't

enough farm land to support a dairy. In order to make it pay, it would be necessary to keep a very large herd of cattle. Poultry has also been suggested as an outdoor occupation for women; but it has to be carried on on a large scale to give occupation to many.

There is not much fun in a physician saying to a patient, "You must stay outdoors and walk so many hours, or around this circle so many times." People don't like to do it even for their health. They like some occupation. We thought first of making concrete walks. We needed them very much and the state wasn't willing to give us the necessary appropriation. We got money enough, however, to buy the material, and we started five or six years ago to make walks. We have increased in amount and kind of concrete work until we have done everything except building a house, and we propose to do that shortly. It is pleasant to watch something grow. The last piece of cement work we did was the building of a stairway of fifty-four steps ten feet wide. It is built on piers going four feet into the ground. And there are four flights of steps, separated by rest stretches ten feet wide. Iron rods run both ways along the steps, and every particle of the work, including the excavating and getting out the sand and carrying it to the place by horses and dump carts, was done by forty-four girls, and they enjoyed it immensely. As an illustration I will tell you about Josie. She felt terribly unhappy because she had been sent to such a place. She howled for three days and nights and kept everybody awake. Finally I took her to the place where the girls were making concrete. I said, "Josie, sit in this chair and watch." I resumed my job of overseeing the making of the concrete. She sat watching our work, seeing the girls with the hoes, some stirring the cement just like making cake. Very soon she jumped up crying: "Oh, let me do it, let me do it!" We let her, and we have had no more trouble with her. We kept her outdoors day after day, and soon she was ready to enter the school every morning and to begin to learn English.

There is another girl in the institution who has always required institutional care, and yet she is a most interesting young woman. After serving one sentence she went out and did extremely well for a few months. Then her propensities for wan-

dering came back. She helped herself to a quantity of money that belonged to her mistress, and disappeared. She is perfectly happy and perfectly good while working outdoors. She is now the foreman of our cement squad and teaches the girls how to do the finishing. As long as she can stay with us, she can earn her living. But if she is turned out into the world she will end in a suicide's grave, or in an insane asylum.

We also grade banks. We are in a very picturesque spot, all hills. Whenever we want a new building we have to level a hill. The girls do the grading. It is slow work, but they get it done eventually, and the main object is to keep them in the open air with some occupation. We have also built roads.

This may sound like harsh treatment for delicate women, but we can graduate the labor to suit the strength. It is not necessary to mix enormous quantities of cement, for example. We use small buckets for measuring. A small pail of sand or water or cement is not heavy to lift.

We do our own exterior painting. Perhaps it is not as good work for the girls as the other, but it keeps them occupied in the open air. Some people say, "Don't you think it is dangerous for a girl to stand on a ladder and paint the third story?" I don't see why a girl should fall off a ladder any more than a boy or a man. And if there are no boys to do the painting, there is no reason why the girls shouldn't do it when there are no critical neighbors to look on. We are fortunate in being situated in a place that is isolated.

Another of our occupations is cutting and housing ice. We house enough for our own use, and the girls like to do this so well that they ask why we can't take a contract to fill our neighbors' ice houses. Usually two or three girls a week fall into the water, but that doesn't seem to dampen their ardor. They get on dry clothes and go back to work.

For our recreation we go berrying in the summer time in the woods and we have picnics. In winter time we skate on the lake or we slide down hill.

A number of states have in mind the establishment of state institutions for women, and I was asked to speak on this point. Be careful in your selection of a site. Your activities will be limited in a great measure by your local conditions. If you are

a city set on a hill where all the neighbors will hold up their hands in horror if you attempt to have women do things a little out of the conventional way, you will be hampered, if you mind public opinion. If you are shut in from prying eyes, there is no reason why the women shouldn't do these outdoor jobs which in most institutions for men are done by the inmates. We are coming to a point where it will be considered a crime to locate any institution for the care of men or women or children in a place where the great outdoors is not accessible, not only for work but for play. Insist that you are located in open country where your women may have outdoor occupations, and choose a board of managers which will not be so far behind the times as to think that outdoor occupations will injure the health of women.

THE REAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR CRIME

BY F. EMORY LYON, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CENTRAL HOWARD ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO

I am glad tonight to speak a few moments to some of the law breakers who have not been behind the bars as yet. I wish to indicate—not excluding myself or the rest of the Committee on Law Breakers or of law makers, as the case may be—the truth of an oft-quoted sentiment, that there is so much bad in the best of us, and so much good in the worst of us, there is not much to be said by the rest of us. If it be true that some of us live in glass houses, it is surely well that we talk here tonight concerning those of our fellows who live in the stone houses with iron bars; and not only that we say something about them and their welfare, but that we do something so definite and practical that, as Emerson would say, our deeds shall speak so loudly that our words need not be heard.

It is not a serious intimation, however, that I may even declare that probably most of us come within the province of law breakers. If in nothing else, then at least within the infraction of the law concerning the new crime that we have

heard a great deal about in this Conference, called "contributory delinquency"; and that applies not alone to the contributory delinquency practiced by a parent against his own child, but by any adult against any child; and so applies to any contributory delinquency perpetrated against the children of the state. And if this be part of our sins of omission, and our being a party to the condition of things and to the existence of institutions that go to contribute to the delinquency of the children of the state, then surely it does apply to many of our fellow citizens and many members of the body politic.

I wonder whether we had any part in contributing, for instance, to the delinquency of Tom Moriarity, who has come to my attention a number of times. He came out from the workhouse a man of forty-two, having been left an orphan in childhood, taught to steal in youth, having spent half of his life in prison, a highway robber, as he calls himself, brought down to the depths of degradation through drink and unable to rise, yet with a glimpse of higher manhood, a glimpse of intelligence, saying, "I sometimes think I will awake and come out of this condition of things"—how far is society responsible for the delinquency of this law breaker? Or who is responsible for the Harvard graduate who came to our society for assistance the second or third time he came out of the house of correction; a man who had received a large income but was willing to take a place at five dollars a week for an addressing company. Five years ago he had an automobile accident, and while suffering pain was given cocaine and morphine doses for days and weeks, so that when he had recovered he found that he was a slave to the drug. And though he has a distinguished family name, his great grandfather having been in the Revolutionary War and his grandfather in the Civil War, yet he is fighting a greater battle than either of them did. Who contributed to the delinquency of this man? And who contributed to the delinquency of the two young brothers who had worked for a man and he refused to pay them, and in their simple-mindedness they felt that they had some right to break into his place and take the value of what was rightfully due them? They made a great mistake, and yet something worse than a mistake was committed by their late employer.

So it is easy for us to go on from this to the larger consideration of the general conditions that go to contribute to the delinquency of the law breakers of the land. In the most charitable interpretation of our attitude toward them it certainly behooves us to recognize that in many of these cases we cannot find the cause of their law breaking and delinquency in the inherent depravity of the men, but rather in the social and civic and industrial causes that we are more and more recognizing to be effective. We may find the cause of crime not only in poverty, but in poverty in the midst of plenty and in contrast with display and wasteful luxury; or find it in the examples set not only by many eminent citizens, but set before the very eyes of these law breakers in the institutions in which they are held.

We all know the higher standard that has come in the persons over these institutions. The more we hear of the evil conditions that obtain in the hearts and minds and practices of the heads of some of these institutions, the more we hear of the under officers and guards and custodial officials and police officials practicing brutalities that in themselves are worse than larceny, the more we are likely to bring our definition of what we consider law breaking and crime up to the higher standard of the divine laws and ethics. We are realizing in this very new definition of a crime—contributory negligence—that crime is not always a matter so much of character, as it is a matter of rhetoric and definition. But when the state shall come to realize that crime is not merely the doing of a certain act, but a matter of real character, then a standard has to be lived up to not merely by those who are the victims of these conditions, but by all citizens alike. In other words, in the constant development of our ideals and the approximation of our practice to these ideals, we are looking to the wise man who said that we are, after all, a very good race at the present time for one that is only half made.

I would not inject a note of pessimism here. I believe I am an unconquerable optimist, and I know of no greater optimist than the distinguished chairman of this section, and I believe that the idea of contributory delinquency is one of the best evidences that we are making progress. In another

Conference recently held in Chicago along the lines of criminology and criminal law, the committees recommended advanced steps which ten years ago would have been seriously objected to by many of the distinguished judges and others who were in attendance. These recommendations made unqualified endorsement of the adult probation idea and the indeterminate sentence, and were unanimously and enthusiastically passed. They marked the progress in part, not only of the National Conference, but of the courts and the states, in recognizing that we are in a great measure responsible for our fellows whom we call law breakers.

THE PROSECUTION OF PARENTS FOR THE DELINQUENCIES OF THEIR CHILDREN.

BY FRANK E. WADE, MEMBER NEW YORK PROBATION COMMISSION, BUFFALO

Great progress in juvenile reformation has been made during the past decade through legislation intended to correct evils produced by ignorance and selfishness. The state has awakened to a consciousness of its responsibility toward children, the innocent victims of environment, heredity and neglect. While formerly the solicitude of the state was directed to the protection of infants' property, the conception has been growing during recent years that the child is also the moral ward of the state, and that the state owes to him the duty of providing a fair chance for good citizenship.

The Juvenile Court, child labor laws and industrial and reformatory institutions for boys and girls conducted on enlightened and humane principles are among the products of the changing order. The application of these reforms, however, is in the main limited to the treatment of the child. Necessary and constructive as their work has been, no plan of juvenile regeneration is complete which does not include the operation of corrective influences on the parents of the child. The parents are the vital factors in the home, and when all that has been

done or is proposed to be done for the welfare of the child is placed in the balance, the preservation of the home outweighs all the rest.

The home is the normal place for the child, and if he be wayward it is the proper sphere for his reform. The constructive thought of the time is concentrated on methods of saving and reforming the home and such corrective effort as the prosecution of parents for the delinquencies of their children is finding an increasingly important place.

Many, some say most, of the offenses of children are caused by the wrongful acts, active encouragement, indifference or indulgence of parents or guardians. Children are sent into vicious places for purposes of gain; they are encouraged to steal and beg and permitted to be disorderly and destructive. Illustrations of parental wrongs and neglect are common in our large cities. Young children can be seen daily picking coal from railroad tracks and cars, not only endangering their morals, but also their lives and limbs. Children under fourteen years of age are day and night selling newspapers on the streets. It is not uncommon for young children to be sent to saloons for liquor and allowed to partake of it. Children are permitted to stay out late at night with older and vicious associates. Are not these offenses against the moral and social order which will justify the state in taking coercive measures for their correction?

The principle of parental responsibility for the offenses of children has long been incorporated in the provisions of the compulsory education laws of the various states which have made neglect on the part of parents to compel school attendance a misdemeanor punishable by a fine or imprisonment, or both. The commissioner of education in New York state in his last annual report laid particular stress on the failure of magistrates to enforce the punitive provision of the law against parents and the advantage to be gained from its strict enforcement. All arguments applying to the correction of truancy by parental prosecution are equally true of other forms of juvenile delinquency.

Colorado was the first state to enact an Adult Contributory Delinquency Law. The law provided that any parent, or per-

son having the custody of a child who is a delinquent, or any other person who is responsible for or contributes to the delinquency of such child is guilty of a misdemeanor. Other states followed the lead of Colorado and adopted similar statutes.

The following table gives the states which have adult contributory delinquency laws, and the year of the latest enactment and the degree of crime and punishment:

Colorado, 1907, ch. 155 (p. 338), misdemeanor. Fine not over $1,000. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Connecticut, 1907, ch. 69 (p. 631). Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

District of Columbia, 1906, U. S., ch. 56, misdemeanor. Fine not over $200. Imprisonment not over three months, or both.

Idaho, 1907 (p. 231), sec. 1, misdemeanor. Fine not over $300. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

Illinois, 1905 (p. 189), misdemeanor. Fine not over $200. Imprisonment not over twelve months, or both.

Indiana, 1907, ch. 169 (p. 266); 1905, ch. 149 (p. 440), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

Iowa, 1909, ch. 14. Adult contributory dependency and neglect prosecuted by equity or civil processes in district court.

Kansas, 1907, ch. 177 (p. 302), misdemeanor. Fine not over $200. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Kentucky, 1908, ch. 60. Prosecuted by equity or civil process in county court.

Louisiana, 1908, Art. No. 83. Gives juvenile court jurisdiction of adult contributory delinquency.

Michigan, 1907, ch. 314 (p. 445), misdemeanor. Fine not over $100. Imprisonment not over ninety days, or both.

Minnesota, 1907, ch. 92 (p. 106), misdemeanor.

Missouri, 1907 (p. 231), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

Montana, 1907, ch. 92 (p. 223), secs. 8-12, misdemeanor. Fine not over $600. Imprisonment not over nine months, or both.

Nebraska, 1905, ch. 195 (p. 687), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

New Jersey, 1905, ch. 160 (p. 307), misdemeanor. Fine not over $1,000. Imprisonment not over six months, or both.

New York, 1909, ch. 40, Art. 44, Consolidated Laws, sec. 483, sub. 3. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over one year, or both, New York City excluded.

Ohio, 1908 (p. 192), secs. 14, 26. Fine $10 to $1,000. Imprisonment ten days to one year.

Oregon, 1907, ch. 69 (p. 121), misdemeanor. Fine not over $1,000. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Pennsylvania, 1909 (Act. No. 241), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Rhode Island, 1908, ch. 1,544 (p. 57), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500, or imprisonment not over one year.

Texas, 1907, Gen. Laws, ch. cix (p. 209), misdemeanor. Fine not over $1,000. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Utah, 1907, ch. 155 (p. 247), misdemeanor. Fine not over $100.

Washington, 1907, ch. 11 (p. 16), misdemeanor. Fine not over $1,000. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Wisconsin, 1905, ch. 444 (p. 767), misdemeanor. Fine not over $500. Imprisonment not over one year, or both.

Adult contributory delinquency is made a crime in all of these states except Kentucky, and is prosecuted through the usual processes of criminal procedure. Exclusive jurisdiction is placed in the juvenile courts in Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana and District of Columbia, and concurrent jurisdiction is in the juvenile court in Indiana, Minnesota and Oregon. The operation of the law in Pennsylvania is limited to the delinquencies of those children to whom the jurisdiction of the juvenile court has attached. All of these statutes include the acts and omissions not only of parents, but also of any adult contributing to the delinquencies of children, and many of them combine responsibility for dependency and neglect.

The law in New York state, first enacted in 1905, excludes New York City, and since there is no statutory definition of juvenile delinquency in New York state the law provides that any parent or other person having the custody of a child under sixteen years of age who omits to exercise due diligence in the custody of such child to prevent it from violating any of the provisions of Chapter 40, Article 44, of the Consolidated Laws, or any other person who contributes to such violation, is guilty of a misdemeanor.

The provisions of the English Children's Act of 1908, dealing with the contributory delinquency of parents, offer some useful suggestions. The law provides that in case the offense of which the child is charged is punishable by a fine, damages or costs, with or without any other penalty, the court shall order that the fine, damages or costs be paid by the parent or

guardian unless the parent or guardian cannot be found or has not contributed to the offense by neglect to exercise due care of the child; that whenever a child is charged with any offense the court may order his parent or guardian to give security for his good behavior; that when the court is satisfied that the charge against the child is proved the court may order the parent or guardian to pay damages or costs and give security for his good behavior without proceeding to the conviction of the child; that any parent or guardian who fails to pay any sums imposed by the court, or perfect any security, may be proceeded against by distress or imprisonment the same as if the order against the parent or guardian had been made upon his conviction of the charge against the child.

Adult Contributory Delinquency Laws have been in force in many states of the Union for a number of years and the questions are naturally suggested: To what extent have they been enforced and what results have been obtained under them? With the exception of Denver, Colorado, where Judge Lindsey is the vitalizing force, and a few places where the court procedure permits some freedom of treatment in juvenile courts, it can be stated with reasonable accuracy that these laws have not been generally enforced and have not produced the results anticipated.

Two years ago the speaker wrote to the magistrates having jurisdiction in the twenty largest cities in New York state requesting a statement of the number of arrests and convictions under the law and also an expression of the opinion of the magistrates on the law. The replies showed that with the exception of a few isolated cases there had been no arrests or convictions for adult contributory delinquency, exclusive of prosecutions under the Compulsory Education Law and the curfew laws, although the magistrates all commended the character and purpose of the Adult Contributory Delinquency Law.

It seemed an anomalous situation. Here was a law which the magistrates admitted to be beneficent, and yet which they did not enforce. Societies for the prevention of cruelty to children in the same cities were also communicated with and their answers indicated that they also were not endeavoring

to use the law, although they uniformly approved of it. Another circular letter to the magistrates of the same cities brought replies showing no improvement in the use of the law during the past two years.

The common reason attributed for the lack of enforcement is cowardice of the magistrates. While there may be some truth in the charge, many of the magistrates are high-minded men who are not afraid to do their duty. A study of the origin and purpose of these laws indicates that the causes for their non-enforcement are because the jurisdiction is not placed in the juvenile courts, of which they are the outgrowth, and because the existing forms of the criminal law are not flexible enough to treat the cases without undue severity.

The various states had adopted the Colorado plan without the Denver court methods. Judge Lindsey, the father of the Adult Contributory Delinquency Law, who has demonstrated its efficiency in connection with his juvenile court work, clearly pointed out that it should be used as an adjunct of the Juvenile Court, and warned other states of failure in grafting it on the older forms of criminal procedure. He said several years ago: "Fathers who fail to support their children, either physically or morally, are liable under the laws of Colorado, and in Denver are all tried in the Juvenile Court. Thus there is concentrated into one court, in one jurisdiction, under the surveillance of the same set of officials, every conceivable case involving a dependent or delinquent child as well as those responsible for its dependency or delinquency. * * * We consider it a step backward rather than forward to provide for a special court limited to children's cases, unless it is given general and unlimited criminal and chancery court jurisdiction in order that it may successfully handle all cases against or concerning adults where a child is involved."

The correction of the parent for contributing to juvenile delinquency is part and parcel of the reform of the child. The child stands before the magistrate adjudged a delinquent, or guilty of the offense "or in need of the care and protection of the state," and the facts of his history and home environment are, or ought to be spread before the court, and the judge sees in the concrete case the result of the wrongful acts

or indifference of parents or guardians. This is the psychological time to apply the remedy not only to the child, but also to the parent, for the future welfare of the child, although not in the presence of the child or other children. It is not surprising that when the prosecution of the parent is placed at another time and in another court and possibly before another judge, lack of interest and external influences defeat the purposes of the law.

The harshness of the older forms of criminal procedure also stands in the way of the enforcement of adult contributory delinquency laws. Old-fashioned notions about rights of parents in the lives of their children are deep-rooted in the community. Magistrates hesitate to place the stigma of arrest or criminal conviction on parents for false ideas of home relations. In accordance with the criminal procedure of New York and other states, when a person is prosecuted for a misdemeanor a police officer arrests the offender, and unless bonds be given he should be detained at a police station until his trial in a police court. Most of the offending parents are foreigners or poverty-stricken persons who are ignorant of American standards and laws and often in dire need of their children's help, which is the cause of the delinquency.

Modifications must be made in the criminal procedure of the states where these severe forms exist before adult contributory delinquency laws will be generally enforced. Some way must be devised whereby the offending parents can be brought into court and corrective influences applied to them without necessarily stigmatizing them as criminals. The use of the summons in criminal cases, which in many places has been recognized by law, and in some has been adopted in spite of the law, is the instrument by which to attain such results.

Some form of probationary oversight should also be worked out in connection with the summons. Probation strictly construed begins after conviction of an offense and suspension of sentence. Nevertheless, the problem of removing the stigma of criminal conviction from children and retaining the supervision of the probation officers is now practically solved both by proceedings in equity and by statute. The application of similar treatment in the discretion of the court to parents during

an examination for contributory delinquency is closely related and most desirable. After a parent has been summoned into court for this offense it may be that the court has the power in equity, or may acquire the right by statute, to adjourn the examination from time to time, placing the parent under the oversight of a probation officer during the interim. It is not a trial for a crime, but a preliminary investigation to discover if a crime has been committed, and will not conflict with the constitutional rights for a speedy trial which arise after arrest or indictment. Every objection to such procedure can certainly be removed by securing the consent of the party under investigation to the adjournment and probationary supervision. The legal principles are all strained in his behalf and for his good and there does not seem much doubt of the practical success of the proceedings when it means a choice between it and immediate arrest and trial for a crime.

The magistrate in the Juvenile Court can thereupon summon the offending parent into court and warn him of the criminal nature of his conduct, and if advisable adjourn his examination, placing him under the supervision of a probation officer. In most cases such treatment will suffice and give reasonable latitude for leniency. In vicious cases and repeated offenses or upon the report of probation officers, the magistrate has the power to issue the warrant and try the offender under the Adult Contributory Delinquency Law, convicting him of a misdemeanor.

In states where the Juvenile Court is part of a court having both equity and criminal jurisdiction the widest latitude exists for the treatment of adult contributory delinquency cases. The summons can be used and both equity and criminal processes applied in the disposition of the cases. In states where the Juvenile Court is a branch of the inferior court having no equity jurisdiction, the use of the summons can be made legal and the court given an opportunity of exhausting its influence on the parents before resorting to its criminal procedure. In states where the Juvenile Court is a part of a court having equity and no criminal jurisdiction, the problem of properly treating adult contributory delinquency is exceedingly difficult and may ultimately result in the neces-

sity of transferring the Juvenile Court to courts which have both equity and criminal jurisdiction, or to the inferior courts where the procedure of the Juvenile Court and adult contributory delinquency can be defined by statute.

It is reasonably demonstrated that the penalty of adult contributory delinquency statutes should be criminal while the procedure should be elastic enough to permit of the treatment of proper cases without necessarily using criminal processes. The arguments against the use of criminal statutes in the correction of children do not apply to adults. The fixed habits and depravity of adults demand that in the background there must always be the possibility of criminal punishment for contributory delinquency, and that whenever necessary the courts must have the power of applying drastic chastisement in order to bring stubborn and evil persons to a sense of their responsibilities.

Statutes removing criminal punishment for adult contributory delinquency will undoubtedly prove unworkable. The experiment was tried last year in Kentucky. The Kentucky law of 1908 provided in brief that any person may make a sworn petition against the adult alleged to be responsible for the neglect, dependency or delinquency of a child, upon which a summons will issue; that if the court is satisfied of such responsibility an order is entered so adjudicating it and directing the person to do or omit to do the matters complained of; that for the purpose of enforcing its judgments the court may adjourn proceedings from time to time, placing such persons on probation, and may also order a bond to be filed; that the court has all the powers of an equity court to enforce its decrees, and may also order prosecution on the bond, the proceeds of which must be used for the benefit of the child.

This is a most interesting statute and is the only one in the country which has removed criminal prosecution in adult contributory delinquency cases. Bernard Flexner, who drafted the law, states: "I am forced to admit with some reluctance that our statute has not given us the results we expected. We have been forced in a number of cases to prosecute the adult criminal in the police court before we were able to do anything with him. It is my opinion, after somewhat careful

study, that the best results, so far as the adult is concerned, can only be gotten through the criminal statutes."

To summarize briefly, the conclusions reached by this study in regard to the effective and jurisdictional features of an adult contributory delinquency law are:

First—Exclusive jurisdiction of adult contributory delinquency should be conferred on the Juvenile Court.

Second—The use of the summons as a means of bringing the offender into court for a preliminary investigation should be made legal in courts having criminal jurisdiction.

Third—Some form of probationary oversight should be provided for in connection with the summons, during the periods of adjournment of the examination, with or without the consent of the offender.

Fourth—Adult contributory delinquency should be made a crime, preferably a misdemeanor.

Fifth—Courts having both equity and criminal jurisdiction are the most effective for the work of the Juvenile Court in connection with the prosecution of adult contributory delinquency cases.

Sixth—Inferior courts in which the forms of procedure of the Juvenile Court and the prosecution of adult contributory delinquency are prescribed by statute, are preferable to courts having solely equity jurisdiction because adult contributory delinquency cannot be properly treated in the latter courts.

These corrective statutes are still experimental. The state is striving to save the child handicapped by the ignorance and depravity of its parents. While the state cannot by law transform character and infuse decency into human nature, it can through its courts correct and punish offenses which cross the border line of social responsibility, and it can institute processes of reformation in the home. The usefulness of the courts in the work of social reconstruction is still in its inception and is replete with great possibilities of future growth.

The attitude of the courts toward the prosecution of crime and public offenses is changing radically. Instead of austere tribunals where punishment is meted out and the vengeance of the state is recorded, they are becoming clearing houses for moral rehabilitation and public helpfulness. As long as the

industrial struggle is unsettled and class distinctions create bitterness there will be more or less distrust of private philanthropy, but the courts are the people's own and the judges are their servants. There is a confidence in them and a dependence on them which will grow as the functions of the courts for usefulness increase.

This is particularly true of Juvenile Courts, whose mission is the saving and redemption of the child. The Juvenile Court is becoming the central agency for the uplift and regeneration of the wayward child and the neglected home, but it will never attain its full measure of success or gain the right proportion and perspective in the treatment of the child until it combines under its jurisdiction the correction and oversight not only of the delinquent child but also of the delinquent parent.

Press and Publicity

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY H. WIRT STEELE, CHAIRMAN

Your Committee on Press and Publicity desires to reiterate its appeal of last year for a better understanding and closer co-operation between social workers and publicists. We wish to say again, that in our opinion the remedy for many, if not all, social ills, lies beyond an educated public opinion. Education is a process; the dynamics are within the people. Humanitarian impulses may be awakened and directed by the educational process, but the educated will, themselves, exert the force to right wrongs.

We hold that it is the duty of every social worker to lend himself, and the particular service he is engaged in, to a campaign of publicity, to the end that people may know what he is doing, how he is doing it and the reasons for its being done, that they may lend their aid in the doing, else social service remains essentially aristocratic when it should be thoroughly democratic.

The avenues of right publicity are many, and all should be utilized in their proper time and place.

REPORTS, PAPERS AND LEAFLETS

First of all, the social worker must give to the public which supports him a faithful account of his stewardship. The earliest method of doing this was through the medium of the annual report. We have seen that institution develop from a mere categorical summary of activities, receipts and expenditures, into a living, breathing document instinct with life and movement. The best annual reports today are those which present a vitalized picture of the activities of a society or in-

stitution, showing the relation of those activities to the life of the community which they serve. Pictorial illustration has been found to add wonderful effectiveness to the report. Naturally, and of course, the report should contain an itemized statement of receipts and expenditure, of funds intrusted to the association or institution, and this statement should be attested to by disinterested accountants who have audited the books.

A wider public than that reached by the annual report can be spoken to through occasional papers, leaflets and short reprints, which tell in a concise way some part of the whole story of the work in hand.

The widest possible public is reached through the newspaper story, the magazine article and the devices of the advertiser.

NEWSPAPER PUBLICITY

Like the poor, newspapers are always with us, but the casual reader has as little conception of the amount of physical, mental and financial energy that go into the making of a single day's edition, as he has of the extent of the planning and engineering that are responsible for the glass of water he finds at his plate at breakfast. The general idea seems to be that newspapers, like air and sunshine, happen without human intervention. If social workers would familiarize themselves with the conditions under which newspaper work is done, it would save no end of trouble on both sides.

In spite of the apparently spontaneous generation of the newspaper, a very definite routine is followed in a newspaper office. The news gatherers report for duty at a certain time —at noon if the paper comes out in the morning, and between eight and nine in the morning if the paper on which they are employed is an afternoon one. After a brief conference with their chief, the city editor, the reporters start out on their assignments (not assignment, but m-e-n-t-s), and the subjects covered by any one individual, on any one day, are likely to range from fancy dress balls to funerals.

When a reporter has covered his assignments he goes back to his office and grinds out his stories, always with an eye on

the clock, and always with a remembrance in the back of his head that the paper will go to press before he can throw his stuff in the copy readers' basket if he does not hurry. The rush is just as great whether he is connected with a morning or an afternoon paper, except that in the former case it extends over a longer period, for when his afternoon work is written up he will have to chase out on his night assignments. Social workers who are wise in their day and generation adjust themselves to these conditions and plan to give out any news they want published as early as possible in the day; that is, early in the morning if they want a good showing in the afternoon papers, and early in the afternoon if they want representative stories in the papers of the next morning. Men who are doing general reportorial work rarely get back from their night assignments before half past ten o'clock, and it usually is later. It goes without saying that a man who walks into an office after half past ten must have his material in pretty good shape if he is to turn out any readable stuff between then and midnight when the paper goes to press. Stories that have social betterment for their theme are likely to be frigidly received at that hour of the night. The midnight oil burns only for thrillers, for fires and the rest of the unexpected which can always be depended on to break loose when nobody is looking for it.

A certain amount of snobbery falls to the lot of the newspaper man every day. The social variety is diverting; the intellectual brands add spice to experiences that are by no means dull, but it is the sociological sort that turns the reporter into the cynic. Reporters as a rule are idealists—they might not acknowledge the impeachment if charged with it, but they are, all the same. They put anybody who seems to realize their ideals up on a pedestal, and they keep him there until he tumbles off and they find that his feet are of clay, when they replace him by another. They get accustomed, after a while, to having their ideals and their idols smashed into small bits, but they go on putting up their pedestals. They can't help it. It becomes a habit. Of social workers in particular they expect a great deal, and the disappointment is all the keener when they do not measure up to the standards of "no-

blesse oblige" that are expected of them. The majority of the leaders—the generals, the captains and the other superior officers in the fight against dirt and disease and poverty and vice and crime and ignorance—it is only just to admit, exercise the tact, the courtesy, the fairmindedness, the good judgment, the consideration and best of all the common sense that relieve them from any suspicion of snobbery in their intercourse with newspaper workers. But the same is not always true of the rank and file in the sociological camps. It is not usually the superior officers who complain that stories are inaccurate, because the superior officers have learned the wisdom of having their data carefully prepared, and of giving out information in such shape that it cannot easily be misunderstood. It is generally the sociological dabbler who antagonizes not merely the reporter, but the reporter's chief, by his or her criticisms of newspapers in general and who rails at their inaccuracy and ignorance and sensationalism in regard to sociological happenings in particular. Such critics add insult to injury by assuming an air of moral superiority which is exceedingly trying. People of this type are inclined to betray their ignorance of newspaper conditions by expressing pity for the "poor reporters" and of apologizing for giving them news, on the ground that they are sorry for them and want to help them earn their bread and butter. Cub reporters who are cutting their eye teeth on space work are occasionally assigned to cover the sociological happenings, but in the majority of instances the man or woman who covers these things is on a salary, and does not need patronage on that score. The establishment of common-sense relations would be much more to the point—relations in which no self-respect need be lost on the side either of the man who gives out the news, or of the one who puts it into such shape that the rest of the world finds out about it. It does not require an especially keen sense of justice to see which is the credit and which the debit side in transactions of this sort.

Reporters are not addicted to joining new organizations, but if somebody were to establish an association for the cultivation of the imagination—of the rest of the world—it is safe to predict that every reporter in the land would want to be a

charter member. Nearly all the troubles that beset the path of the newspaper man or woman are due to the lack of that quality—in some other person, of course. The ability to put oneself in another's place, to see the world from another's point of view, or even to realize that such a view is possible, is one of the rarest gifts the gods bestow. And the reporter thanks his stars whenever he runs across one of the favored few who are so endowed. Complaint is often made by social workers that newspapers are not only inaccurate, but that they lack a sense of proportion. The complainants fail to realize that they are not exempt from that fault themselves. In these days a newspaper is not only expected to cover, but does cover the entire universe every day. Plans of social betterment can get a hearing—or rather a printing—only as they are a part of the general scheme of things. Social workers are inclined to think that newspapers are philanthropic institutions. They are not. They are business enterprises which are run primarily for financial profit—and by the way, it rarely occurs to the untrained social worker that the reason his playground story got a bad showing last week was because he gave it out on Friday, and the advertising for the Saturday morning paper was so heavy that the number of columns devoted to local affairs was cut down to eleven instead of the sixteen usually available. Even among the newspaper fraternity there are some who believe with the social workers that the millennium will come in over the social betterment route, but on certain days in the week the advertiser has the right of way through the newspaper. On these occasions the millennium is disposed of in as small space as possible, and the newspaper would be decidedly out of pocket if it did otherwise.

There are reporters and reporters, but taking them as a class, they are neither better nor worse than the rest of the world. For the one yellow journalist who will be found in every bunch of newspaper men, you will find a score of steady, reliable and honorable individuals. And down in the bottom of their hearts they have as much contempt for the unreliable sensationalist as you have. Even if there were no higher principle involved than that of expediency, it would not be common-sensible for a newspaper to be intentionally and habitu-

ally inaccurate and untrustworthy. The friends a reporter makes for his paper are among the most important business assets that both the individual and the paper can accumulate. A "nose for news" and the ability to put his stuff into crisp, readable English are essential assets so far as the individual is concerned, but these are of no account if a man cannot win, or fails to keep, the confidence of his clientele. On the other hand, it is quite as necessary for the reporter to be sure that the social worker will give him a square deal. Suppose, for instance, that the reporter has agreed not to publish some particular story until the social worker should give the word. The reporter wants to be sure that the social worker will keep his end of the agreement. He wants to be sure that the social worker will not "inadvertently" give the story to one of his competitors before he has had a crack at it.

If for any reason a reporter becomes *persona non grata* to a social worker, it is easy enough for the latter to have somebody else assigned to cover that particular office. For a number of years a man of rather exuberant vocabulary was assigned to "do" the yearly meeting of the Society of Friends. The clerk of the society had no complaint to make, but for yearly meeting purposes he preferred a person who was more likely to be fettered by facts, so, when the time for the meeting came along, he wrote a polite diplomatic note to the city editor and asked if Mr. Blank might not be assigned to the meeting. Mr. Brown has always come, he said, and had been most obliging, but while he was sure that Mr. Brown could not be excelled as a member of the sporting department, he thought that Mr. Blank was a little more familiar with the topics to be discussed by the Friends, and it would be a saving of time all around if he could be detailed to do the meeting. The request was granted and everybody was happy, including Mr. Brown.

The city editors have an insatiable appetite for stories with a "human interest," and that insatiable appetite has been responsible for some of the very serious hindrances that have been placed in the way of the betterment of individuals and occasionally of whole families. Appeals for money for starving families, for funds to send hopelessly ill consumptives

down to Texas or out into the country, belong to this class. And it is only just to the city editors to acknowledge that a genuinely unselfish desire to be of service may be interwoven with the liking for a human interest story. The philosophy underlying social service was not mastered by the social worker in a day, and he cannot expect a man without sociological training to take the constructive point of view immediately. The unthinking but good-hearted news-gatherer wants the consumptive to have something that will make him better right away—money, a ticket to Arizona, or whatever else is suggested. But newspaper workers are no less amenable to reason than are other civilized beings. Give them a chance and they are quick to appreciate the difference between pity as a motive and pity as an emotion.

City editors are rather set in their ways and they cannot be reformed easily, but it is really worth while to take a little trouble with the reporter if you want to bring him up in the way in which he should sociologically go. Kaleidoscopic changes are likely to occur in newspaper offices. The man "on the street" today may be a copy reader tomorrow and city editor next week. City editors are not all-powerful, but their enlightened co-operation is not to be despised, therefore it might be well to take heed as to the way in which you entertain mere reporters. There is no danger that they will turn out to be angels in disguise, but they may turn out to be city editors.

MAGAZINE ARTICLES

The modern periodical magazine reaches very much the same public as the newspaper, but in different ways. Its appeal is stronger in some directions. Its form is a little more permanent. It is prepared with more care and its editors and staff occupy a greater isolation than do the newspaper workers. It is therefore necessary that social workers give to their work that dignity and efficiency that will command the attention of local publicists, and that they shall co-operate with their fellow workers throughout the country that the story of the sum total of the work being done in any given branch of social service shall assume such proportions that it will, as a

matter of course, attract the attention of magazine writers and editors.

It has been by virtue of some little of this co-operative publicity that things the members of this conference are doing have, in recent times, become "news," as that term is defined by the publicists themselves. In other words, it now constitutes a story worth telling to the reading public. You must remember here, too, that magazines are published primarily for financial profit. They constitute business enterprises, and whatever makes for good business will not long escape the notice of editors and their staffs. Therefore, social workers need to help make it good business for magazines to publish stories of the right values concerning child labor, compulsory education, institutional life of children, placing-out system for dependent children, juvenile courts, treatment of the offender, probation work, state care of the insane and other defective classes, the meaning of state supervision of philanthropic activities, the elimination of tuberculosis, the abatement of tenement house evils, pure milk and pure food supplies, and the hundred and one other things that are making for more wholesome living conditions among our people.

RESPONSIBILITY AND OPPORTUNITY OF THE PUBLICIST

To those who have received a press-clipping service, or who have access to large numbers of newspapers and periodicals, it has become a matter of moment that the publicists throughout the entire country are coming very rapidly to the conclusion that they have a responsibility in matters relating to social and industrial welfare. They are coming to realize more and more clearly that party politics does not constitute the beginning and end of American life. They are seeing with a much clearer vision very many human relations which have heretofore been obscured to them, or which have been passed over lightly as of little news value. Many newspapers are now coming to realize that it is up to them to employ special reporters to cover meetings and events involving charitable or social work. They are concluding that if it is necessary to send to a baseball game, a horse race, or a prize fight men who

have mastered the technique of the sport, or if it is necessary to send a man or a woman who has some knowledge of music to report a concert or a recital, it is just as important to follow the same course in reporting the events involved in social service.

With this larger vision has come action on the part both of newspaper men and of magazine editors. The Chicago Daily Tribune is publishing each day some public health hints which it secures from the municipal department of health. Another Chicago paper for several years has conducted a column in which the industrial relations of men are discussed by members of this Conference. A daily paper in Louisville, Ky., carries a column several days a week devoted to organized charity at home and abroad, and so on, both east and west, clear across the continent, are signs of the socializing influences which are making for better life and truer democracy. For instance, there comes to this committee from the editorial desk of one of the best newspapers in the United States, the opinion of its editor, who said: "I do not know that I have definite ideas as to how the press can be made useful in this social work, but I have always thought that there was too much police publicity, and that newspapers ought never, at least as a rule, to make publication of the names of first offenders. A false accusation of crime or of pauperism may be lived down if it does not get into print. Of course publications of this kind are privileged, but it is unwise for one to live up and live out all his privileges." Surely such orthodoxy is bearing fruit in the community which claims that newspaper as its home and that editor as a citizen. And again, from the far Pacific coast, comes the opinion of an editor of one of the most important newspapers in that virile new country, when asked how he thought a newspaper could best serve the community in securing high efficiency in the management of public charitable and penal institutions. "The newspaper," said he, "can best serve the community in securing such efficiency by informing the public from time to time, accurately, as to the methods employed and the results produced in public institutions; second, by serving as a just critic of inefficiency, incompetency and maladministration of such institutions. These two methods of service by the

newspaper seem to me to be self-evident—should not require any very elaborate treatment. I think newspapers sometimes fail in performing their full duty in this respect, owing to the petty obstacles put in their way by the efforts of directors of such institutions. Any public institution supported by taxpayers' money should be open in all its operations to the scrutiny of any public newspaper whether friendly or unfriendly to the administration. Criticisms of unfriendly or hostile newspapers, or those criticising from a selfish motive, are not in themselves disastrous or seriously injurious to public institutions, though such publications frequently cause great annoyance to the officers of the institution. On the other hand, any publicity given to public institutions by fair newspapers cannot fail to be of benefit, by reason of the stimulus which such publicity gives to public officers as a rule, and by exciting the interest of the sometimes indifferent taxpayer to the great work which is done in public charitable and penal institutions."

So much for a realization of his responsibility by the newspaper man. We have only to look over the files of most of the more important weekly and monthly magazines for the past two or three years to discover in practically every one of them a stirring, and feeling for solid ground from which to attack some special social evil, or to exploit some particularly effective piece of social service. The tremendous fight by Collier's and the Ladies Home Journal against certain patent medicines and nostrums is memorable. McClure's long campaign of education, at the close of which the American public had learned many essential truths about the methods of acquiring and using predatory wealth, needs no further comment. The alignment of the Metropolitan with the forces which are combating the Great White Plague marks an epoch of a new era for that magazine. The work of representatives of Success and Collier's at Washington during the present session of congress in organizing the people's lobby has found ample compensation, both in enlarged subscription lists and possibly higher advertising rates and in the spectacle of a dozen or more people's lobbies organized in as many states where legislatures were sitting during the past winter. And now comes the announcement that the World's Work is about to undertake a consistent program of education

concerning public health. Surely the spirit of the men in each of these great organs of publicity is fine and right, and it behooves social workers so to guide and direct this new-found energy that the whole program shall develop logically and consistently in one progressive wave, and not in a turbulent maelstrom of futile agitation.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE PUBLICIST IN RELATION TO EFFORTS FOR SOCIAL BETTERMENT

BY ALBERT SHAW, EDITOR REVIEW OF REVIEWS

There have been times and places when certain forward steps in social progress came by reason of the favor of princes, the rescripts of emperors, the inspired leadership of great reformers, or the endowment of an institution or a cause out of private wealth. But in our time the substantial welfare of the community is not in any vital sense dependent upon individual leadership or the gracious favor of those in authority, nor is it promoted in hidden or mysterious ways. We live in a time of diffused intelligence, where nobody, whether in Church or in State, can accomplish much by assuming the tone of authority, and where masses of men must be gently led to common views and common action, if innovations are to be established that relate to their social habits.

Our modern institutions of government, with their myriad phases of relationship to social welfare, are merely official agencies formed and directed by public opinion. The relationship of these institutions of government to social welfare is a topic upon which I have been asked to speak elsewhere this week. I am invited, however, to speak here tonight upon a topic that seems to me quite as practical, and for our present purposes, even more fundamental—namely, the relationship of certain methods and agencies of publicity to the achievement of results in work for social betterment.

Government, in its national, state, municipal, and local forms, can be made, even without any extension of its func-

tions, an extremely effective machine for promoting the welfare of individuals and groups in the social organism. But we are always confronted by the paradox that government, in its motives and in its character, under our modern democratic system, cannot be any better or wiser than the people who constitute and maintain it.

So that, while it is the business of the government to promote in many ways the social welfare, it is not less necessary that the friends of society's wellbeing should be always exerting themselves to make and keep the government what it ought to be. Government will often fail us in our best aims for the community, even after we have succeeded in obtaining the sanction of those aims in our laws, and have placed our cherished causes under official auspices.

Thus we have to find a way, not only to keep the causes themselves alive in the hearts and minds of the community, but also to keep the machinery of governmental or of institutional work up to its proper state of efficiency. I wish there were some simple formula I might ask you to adopt, by virtue of which our communities could be made unanimous in their support of the progressive measures in which you believe, and under which our governmental agencies might be made at once responsive, intelligent, honest and effective.

There is no such simple formula. There are times when keeping very quiet and hiring a detective is the way to deal with a matter involving social progress, and there are other times when the better way is to take a brass band and make as much noise as possible. But if I were compelled to give you a simple formula, and were allowed only half a minute of time and but a single sentence, I should do the best I could, should not decline the task, and my single sentence would be this: Get the newspapers with you.

Of course it is desirable to have the churches with you, as well as the educational forces, the women's clubs, the central labor federation, the chamber of commerce, and as many other typical and representative opinion-making groups as possible. But the newspapers are the most important, because they serve all these opinion-making groups, and many others. Furthermore, the newspapers have two functions, either one of

which is of stupendous importance. They are organs of publicity, and they are also organs of opinion.

As organs of publicity they have well-nigh superseded the platform and the casual interchanges of the market-place. The chief function of the newspapers is the purveying of *"news,"* as such. *"News"* is information of a sufficiently general or public character to be interesting to a good many people. The collection of news and its printing and sale in the form of newspapers is an important branch of commerce. The selection and preparation of news is an art requiring skill and intelligence. It has also many of the aspects of a profession. The presentation of news, taken together with the interpretation of it for reasons of political and social well-being, is indeed in every sense a great profession. When one considers it, this is just as obviously true as that the work of the doctor is a profession, when he tries to promote the individual and public health, or the work of the teacher, when he tries to make intellectual and moral culture in the individual the basis of a useful and honorable life in the community.

It is as reasonable to expect and demand of a newspaper that it shall be guided in its conduct by motives of the public welfare, as to expect of a licensed physician that he shall not minister to social debasement by disseminating the use of harmful drugs, or by otherwise using his professional knowledge for unlawful or criminal purposes.

It is, in short, the business of newspapers so to present the news as to minister to the public welfare. Apart from their purely commercial aspects it is the business of newspapers so to present the news and so to interpret it as to be helping at all times to form a wholesome and well-instructed public opinion, and, further than that, to help such a public opinion to keep a firm control of public affairs.

I have seemed to intimate that we are ruled by public opinion, that the newspaper is the chief agent of publicity whereby opinion obtains the pabulum which shapes and develops it, and that, therefore, being governed by public opinion, we are, in the last resort, governed by the newspapers. This, of course, is not always and literally true. The

newspapers are sometimes more effective as organs of publicity than as guides of public opinion. Sometimes there are evil passions and degraded tastes that rule a community in spite of the sane opinion of the better and more intelligent people. There are times when unseen forces of power and greed find ways to mislead bodies of voters, thus obtaining control of the governmental machinery and impeding the march of social progress by misuse of political power—with or without help from the press.

The newspapers are by no means the only way the community has to find out the truth about matters of common concern or to find guidance and leadership when it comes to giving a meaning to events, and to the finding of a proper course to pursue. There are moments when the pulpit as an agency may surpass the press, others when the labor unions may beat both, and still others when the school teachers and women's clubs combined could turn the mind and heart of the community as against the combined power of press and pulpit, capital and labor.

But, in normal times, under ordinary, everyday conditions, the press has the immense advantage. Its facilities are incomparable. It sweeps the whole world. Every day it keeps alive in us a sense of common interest in the affairs of our community. It lifts us out of the local rut and gives us the broader spirit and intelligence of common citizens of a great country. Still further, it extends our sympathies beyond national bounds, and gives us the feeling of human solidarity.

Thus the press is the highest agent of our modern civilization—not because it can be set in contrast with other agents, but because it serves and reinforces them all without displacing them. The press does not take the place of the common schools, but it is so pervasive and so necessary a human agency that at present the chief work of the common schools, consciously or unconsciously, has come to be that of making a nation of people who read newspapers and periodicals.

There are those who believe that the affairs of the community are in the future more and more going to be ordered and directed through an expansion of governmental machinery and agencies. There are others who believe that

the social welfare is to be promoted in the future chiefly by voluntary forms of co-operation, the community becoming so well instructed and so right-minded that the physical and moral standards of health will improve, poverty will well-nigh disappear, and crime grow less as the wise training of the young applies preventive remedies—society thus moving forward without much show of compulsion or officialism. But, whether our democracy is to move in the direction of the highly functioned socialistic state, or whether it is to rest upon a basis of individualism and private organization, there must in any case be a well-instructed public opinion, or else affairs will grow worse rather than better.

And, in any case, the function of news-gathering, of news-selection, and of news-distribution, must bear an increasingly important relation to social progress. The functions of the school, from the primary department to the university, while always under discussion and to some extent in controversy, receive a great deal of thought and attention, and its importance is fully recognized. The functions to be performed by the agencies of government, in like manner, are matters of constant solicitude, and always must be. The specialized institutions, whether public or private, for dealing with differentiated social problems—a class of institutions represented by many of you here—have also the benefit of deep and expert study and constant interchange of opinion for the sake of improvement. But not half enough attention has been paid to the vital part performed in the social organism by *the press*, as a means whereby the general intelligence may be brought to bear constantly upon a vast number of matters, all of which relate to the public welfare.

The newspaper is a thing so familiar that we sometimes cease to wonder at its production as a daily miracle, just as we forget its dominant power for good or ill. Flowing water is of priceless value, and it has a tendency to purify itself; yet sometimes it carries infection of typhoid or cholera, and for a time poisons whole neighborhoods. The press also renders priceless service to the community, and I think in its very nature its tendency is toward the things that are wholesome and for the welfare of the public. Yet the press may

also at times come short of its best uses, and it may through a perversion of its functions thwart the purposes of those who would sweeten and purify the social life.

If I were addressing a company of newspaper men, there are many things I should like to say from their standpoint upon the true nature of news, its intelligent presentation, and the place that the press ought to take in your general and specific plans of work for the betterment of the community. The phrasing of my subject, as I see it printed in the program, might indeed imply a presentation to newspaper men themselves. But as I look over the committee and membership lists of this Conference, and note the wealth of special topics under discussion this year, I am compelled to keep in mind the fact that I am not addressing journalists, but trained workers and leaders in varied fields of scientific social progress.

Even those of you who represent the most highly specialized departments of social work are fullly aware of the importance of the work of your fellows in other departments, and do not for a moment lose sight of the main results toward which your own particular work makes its contribution. We do not know what is to become of us a few generations hence. We cannot even guess what developments internationalism may take on, at the expense of our present devotion to the ideals of national patriotism. We hardly venture to imagine where certain population tendencies may lead us, and we are bewildered as we try to calculate the future of industrial progress and invention, as applied to the means of subsistence and as bearing upon the numerical growth of population. We are passing through a period of transitions so rapid as to be at times very confusing and even alarming. Yet we have to hold to some ethical and social creeds, and we have to believe in human progress and in altruistic ideals.

When our bacteriologists show us the relation of pure water and pure milk to the health of the community, we find ourselves compelled to work for practical applications of these advances in scientific knowledge. When we learn by study, and by a comparison of experiences, the relation of education and environment to crime and all sorts of anti-social life and

conduct, we find ourselves impelled to try to put into practice the approved remedies for ascertained defects in education, or for evils in environment. Those of you who are veterans in this great work of social betterment have not grown pessimistic, but, on the contrary, have become hopeful. The growth of our population, the elaboration of our industrial life, the massing of people in great towns, the rapid migration of masses of working-class people from one country to another—these and many other things have complicated the business of dealing, on lines of system and of administration, with social deficiencies. But, on the other hand, the progress of science and the results of experience in dealing with these human problems have pointed out remedies where evils have multiplied, and thus the social worker finds fresh courage and is amply justified in his hopes and efforts.

I remember, as do many of you, the time when it was generally believed that the effect of life in large towns was necessarily detrimental. The death-rates of large towns were much higher than the birth-rates; epidemics were prevalent; poverty and chronic drunkenness and crime were endemic; the submerged were a considerable proportion of the population. There are men still alive who remember when the hillsides of Kent were white with the tents of vast smallpox camps from East London. And there are still more who remember when scourges of Asiatic cholera swept the civilized as well as the uncivilized countries. Epidemics in the old sense are manageable and are well-nigh abolished. The slums, once regarded as inevitable, are disappearing, not merely with the improvement of administration, but also, and still more, with the improvement of average human conditions. Certain forms and manifestations of lawlessness and crime are disappearing so fast from our towns that it is hard to believe the stories told of conditions that existed half a century ago.

There is plenty left to be done, and many tasks that are difficult and sometimes discouraging. But the general progress that has been made in the wholesomeness of life and in the average condition of the poorer half of the population, is enormous. And it is this progress already attained that

gives us the principal leverage for further advances. Furthermore, it is this new and rapid progress, particularly in our cities, that explains at once the strength and the weakness of our newspapers. We have great masses of newspaper-reading people today, where fifty years ago public opinion had hardly made its way at all. The dignified and careful newspapers of earlier times were not read in the slums, but the slums, meanwhile, have given place to decent tenement houses and workingmen's cottages, where newspapers by the million are read with eagerness and assiduity.

Manifestly, it has to be a somewhat different type of newspaper that can catch the attention and hold the interest of the tenement houses. It is you, with your manifold reforms of social, industrial, and educational life, who have turned the slums into decent tenement houses, have given them pure water and asphalt pavements, have made them fond of reading, and have thereby, to a large extent, created the present-day type of popular penny newspaper. As you go forward with your social work for the improvement of the community, a work which, after all, seems to you only begun, you will be rewarded with a population far better than that of today, just as that of today is far better than that of a generation ago.

And as this population improves, you will see a corresponding improvement in the newspapers that minister to its instruction and entertainment, and that interpret for it the many-sided life of the locality, the country, and the world. But meanwhile it is possible and highly desirable to approach the matter from the other end. The newspapers, as I have said, will be better as you improve the community. But obviously you can improve the community much faster if the papers help you to the full extent of their reasonable ability to do so. After all, do not for a moment forget that they are already as a rule working sympathetically along the line of most of your endeavors.

The universal free school has only now begun to give us the universal newspaper reader. Remember that our newspapers are ministering, not only to the new classes of readers developed by the improvement in our American town popu-

lation, but are also reaching millions who have been mentally stimulated by the awakening of the peasant classes in European countries, and by the progress, also, of mine-working and town-dwelling classes from Austria, Russia, Sicily, and all parts of the Old World. Public opinion, for the moment, has leveled itself down to the inclusion of great masses of human beings who did not, a generation ago, count for much in the determinations that swayed society.

The newspapers to some extent reflect this leveling down of public opinion, due to the broadening of the structure of human intelligence at its base. But do not for a moment doubt the value of this broadening. We shall have a much firmer social structure when a well-taught public opinion is inclusive of the whole population. And, having now our universal newspaper reading public, we must begin more seriously than ever before to use the newspapers for a rebuilding of the institutions that depend for their strength upon public opinion.

Thus, in our governmental work, the chief appeal must lie more than ever to the people, and the more we appeal to them, the more responsible they will become, and the better they will answer the appeal.

More democracy must be the cure for those ills that inhere in our democratic system. And since in our politics we are growing away from the tyranny of rigid, old-fashioned, party lines and traditions, and are also leaving behind us the sort of political issue that obscured the demands for real social betterment, it follows that we are making it easier to bring the real questions, that seem to us vital, into the purview of the politicians and into the forefront of public interest.

It is possible nowadays to make a real issue out of such a question as child labor or pure food, convict labor, or the regulation of the drink traffic. With the change in the nature of parties and their recognition of the demands of social progress, there is also to be noted a marked growth of independence in the newspapers, and a vast increase in the attention that they voluntarily give to the questions that arise in the work of social reform.

Let me repeat, then, that the time was never so opportune as now for a wide and constant use of the newspaper press for the general cause of social progress and for the accomplishment of a hundred specific steps of reform. It may take a long time to perfect an invention which afterwards comes into general use to the great benefit of society. The newspapers cannot invent a car coupler, but they can use their powerful methods for spreading publicity and for concentrating opinion, to the end of compelling the general adoption of automatic couplers, thus saving thousands of lives. The newspapers cannot work out the hygienic and curative systems under which tuberculosis may be rapidly exterminated, but it would be almost impossible to gain the general adoption of effective means to combat tuberculosis without the co-operation of the newspapers.

Naturally and instinctively the press is for all that advances the average conditions of life. The diffusion of prosperity, the increase in the margin of leisure, the substitution of the refined interests and pleasures for the vicious and brutalizing tendencies—these things concern the daily and weekly and monthly organs of publicity as naturally as they concern any other interest or element in the community. The new fact to be noted is the universal distribution of the newspaper, and the need therefore of interpreting social reform to new classes of citizens and readers.

As I have read the topic list and the condensed program of this annual conference, and as I have looked through the list of speakers and the membership of the standing committees—with the institutions or the special offices or positions in the community that they represent—I am impressed beyond any ability I have to set the thing forth in words, with the matchless news value from the newspaper man's standpoint of the subjects and material with which these well-known people are concerning themselves. The newspaper man usually knows by experience better than the specialists in penology or charity or education just how to put these matters into the form that would carry them most effectively to the attention of the average man or woman. But he needs and will welcome your co-operation. The newspaper man has to deal

with an immense variety of concerns that have a certain public interest and that have a legitimate news value. He does not intend to neglect the things that concern the real betterment and advancement of the community. Is it not a part of your duty to aid him and co-operate with him?

Indeed, the newspapers sometimes see in a larger perspective and in a more truly human light the things that make for the social upbuilding than do our absorbed and single-minded reformers. We must not condemn the press too sweepingly even for what seems least useful. It recognizes things as they are. At certain stages of social progress, and in some places, even so bad a thing as prize-fighting might be a relatively humanizing influence. For, historically, prize-fighting at a low stage in the advancement of working-class populations has been better than sodden drunkenness as an alternative. But, upon the whole, the community grows in refinement; and professional baseball is better than pugilism. The newspapers recognize these stages of progress.

The public schools bring into the home life of workingmen's families a strong desire for the mental, moral, and social progress of the children. This has a tendency to put the parents on their best behavior, and it arouses sympathies to which the newspaper finds that it can make effective appeal when it lends itself to movements for temperance and general refinement and when it helps to broaden the horizons of life.

These are the days when plain men and women are so anxious for the welfare of their children that the newspapers respond to that feeling, and they are in turn just as anxious to have you specialists show them wherein that welfare lies. Is it public playgrounds and recreation centers that will build up physical health and protect the child from temptation? The newspapers are eager to have you show them the practical scheme, and are ready to present it in its news phases and to give it editorial support, because they can carry their readers with them if the project has been well thought out.

And so with industrial education and practical trade schools. Have you made a success of reformatory prisons,

with their rigid discipline and their training for industrial life? Then why not give the benefit of practical instruction and discipline to the same class of boys *before* they have drifted into evil courses? Why not the advantages of an Elmira for the honest boy? The newspapers are ready to endorse the real answer, if you have one to give them.

There is a field, and an ever-growing one, for those special organs of publicity and discussion that concern themselves professionally with social and ethical projects. As for the periodicals of general character and circulation, monthly or weekly, in distinction from the newspapers, it is evident enough that they are this year giving more space to the exploitation of topics relating to the upbuilding of society along the lines of your Conference than at any former time. It is hard to work against tendencies, and it is easy to work with them. The tendency of the press is in the direction of a great interest in all kinds of social progress that are safely founded in experience and scientific knowledge.

You are all making some use of the press, and are in many ways showing your sense of its value and power. But perhaps there are times when some of you are tempted to make the mistake of trying to use the press in your way instead of allowing it to find its own methods of co-operating with you in your causes.

Many of our institutions have at times suffered somewhat from a publicity that they have regarded as hostile and sensational; but in some at least of those instances has not the fault been with a secrecy of method that both fostered abuses and also increased the danger of misrepresentation? The management of our hospitals for the insane has been subjected at times to unjust attacks, and the same thing is true of prisons and of many another institution for some other special class of dependents or delinquents. But you have made enormous gains in your knowledge of the best way to administer such institutions and to deal with their inmates; and you have not always, in my judgment, given the newspapers and the public a sufficient knowledge of what you were doing to gain their intelligent support and co-operation.

There are real evils that grow up in our institutional work and in our systems of charity and relief, and these would not have nearly so much of a chance to become serious if we were determined that the white light of publicity should penetrate every corner at all times.

I am not here to be fault-finding or censorious, and I will not be specific; but I have known some things—and each of you has known many in the course of your acquaintance with charitable and correctional administration, public and private—which sorely needed full and constant publicity as a safeguard against dry rot and against all sorts of abuses incident to the opportunities afforded by such forms of social endeavor.

I say therefore now, as at the outset of these remarks, take the newspapers frankly into your confidence, in so far as the matters with which you are concerned fairly belong to the community, and depend for their support upon the public treasury, the gifts of the charitable, or the endowment of the philanthropist. Even where the newspaper might seem to have begun as a sensational and harmful critic, win it over to its true place as a constructive helper by impressing it with your sincerity, your common sense, the genuineness of your knowledge, and the value of your methods. There is today a kindlier and more tender feeling toward childhood than ever before, and this has come with that uplift of the working classes and that spread of intelligence and refinement that is coincident with the reading of the newspaper in every workingman's household. You can always count upon the newspaper to back you in every sensible thing you have to propose for the safeguarding of the physical and moral welfare of children. Do not seek undue or false publicity. Some very good and defensible movements have been well-nigh ruined by love of notoriety and by the attempt to make a literature about them in the days of their slender and feeble beginnings, when obscurity, rather than publicity, should have been welcomed.

Remember that it is not always the reformers who are wise and righteous, while the newspapers are reckless and misleading. The over-advertising of a new and uncertain remedy in its experimental stages, whether to cure cancer or to abolish

poverty, may produce mischief and disappointment. The time comes when the public should be invited, and the newspaper should be used with skill and effect. It is fortunate that so many of you have learned this and have established for your particular institution or agency just the kind of relations with the public press that are most valuable for your success.

I have still a few words to say from the standpoint of the newspaper man, and of his training to do his share of the work of social progress, with the great instrument that he has at his command. He has his own way of acquiring his peculiar craftsmanship. I do not raise the question, therefore, as to his training for journalism, or newspaper work, as a practical art. It is with his development of special knowledge and sympathy in certain fields that we are here concerned.

The newspaper worker cannot know too much of political, social, and economic science and history. It is very fortunate that our colleges and universities are now giving so much attention to the history and the science of human progress. The more deeply the newspaper worker informs himself regarding any field of work for social progress, the stronger he feels in carrying on his newspaper work, and the happier he is in finding that there are compensations for the hardship and drudgery of his profession in the many useful ends it can serve from day to day and from week to week. He finds it possible now, in the schools and in books procurable in libraries, to study the history of the labor movement and the various aspects of poverty and its treatment, as well as of crime and disease and other social maladies; whereas only a generation ago there was comparatively little opportunity for the ordinary intelligent person to become well acquainted with these subjects. Our newspaper men are welcoming these opportunities and are using them.

Those of you who are recognized specialists in different fields of social work should, all of you, as you have opportunity, come into personal touch and relationship with young newspaper men, whose inquiries you can satisfy and whose education you can promote, to the end that they, perhaps, at thousands of successive moments in their future careers, may

bring their better training in these subjects into practical use for the advancement of the public welfare.

To do his best work the journalist must find certain clear and strong reasons to justify the exacting and unending duties of his profession. He can find these reasons in his perception of the function of publicity in the best sense, and in his belief that public opinion may slowly but steadily be built up, on the basis of true education and of various associated lines of social progress.

This constructive point of view, furthermore, gives a dignity and value to the work of publishing a local or country newspaper which otherwise it could not have. When the editor of the local paper has a symmetrical and constructive idea of what human progress ought to mean for his town or his county, he is in a fortunate position. He can help to do many useful things for improving the schools and for making them minister to the refinement and prosperity of town and country life. He can use his paper in the endeavor to bring local methods of dealing with poverty and crime up to the best standards that can be found in his state or in other parts of the world. He can co-operate with every group and agency that is making his region more intelligent, more attractive, better governed, and more obedient to the law.

Thus he can make his paper not only a medium for the distribution of local and general news, but he can also make it an institution and a vitalizing center for the social upbuilding of the town in which he lives, an institution which can supplement and co-ordinate the work of the churches, schools, agencies for charity and relief, and all other instrumentalities for social progress.

RIGHT PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC HEALTH WORK

BY JOHN A. KINGSBURY, ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE NEW YORK STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION

The rule for right publicity in public health work, as I see it, is essentially the same as the rule for commercial advertising: As striking as you can make it.

If nothing but some of the methods of yellow journalism will succeed in getting before the people the simple facts which must be widely disseminated before we can hope for great progress in public health work, then yellow journalism is right publicity in this line. If we need be a little yellow in our methods, we can remind our critics that yellow is the color of prophylaxis. Publicity in public health differs in but two saving respects from most commercial advertising:

It must tell the truth.

It must be moral.

Within these limits I would almost say no means of securing publicity is undignified or unrefined. If Cardinal Woolsey were speaking to us on this subject, I fancy he would say "I charge thee, fling away thy dignity if thou wouldst have successful publicity." If it was by pride that the angels fell, it often has been by dignity that men have failed. When you are writing up a sad case for the press play up the harrowing human details, for they are the real facts. Make your grocer put your dodgers in his delivery packages. Hang your banners on his delivery wagons. Get your merchants to give up their advertising space in the large dailies for a day or a week and from that space let a whole page of big red and black type jump out and strike you in the face with: "To nail your bedroom window shut is to drive a nail in your coffin."

If advertising can create new wants and new desires, the satisfaction of which builds up business for others, surely practical publicity can create a desire for self-preservation.

Practical publicity for the purposes of this discussion may be divided into two heads:

1. General publicity.
2. Direct publicity.

General publicity will aim to reach the public irrespective of locality, through the medium of newspapers and magazines of wide circulation; through bill-boards; through mass meetings, conventions and conferences such as this, all with a view to arresting the public attention, and to arousing a genuine curiosity and a growing interest, to the end that a new want may be created.

To the business mind, advertising that does not create a new want is not good advertising, and I think we may claim with equal force that publicity in public health that does not make people really want a higher standard of public health, that does not actually make people want healthful conditions so badly that politicians can feel it in the air; that publicity which does not arouse genuine public opinion in favor of the object it seeks to popularize, is publicity that palls. We want publicity that pulls.

Let me illustrate by an example from the commercial field, taken from a work of exceptional merit, by Truman A. DeWeese* dealing with practical publicity:

> "The man who made the first safety razor and ventured to put it upon the market had to spend a lot of money creating a new want in the minds of men. It was his lot to convince masculine mankind that they can emancipate themselves from the despotism of the barber shop. It was his mission to point out the avenue of escape. It was his task to convince the bewhiskered humanity that the safety razor is a practical thing—that it is a time saver, a money saver, a blessing to tender faces, and that it is possible for the man who cannot shave himself with the old-fashioned razor to scrape his face quickly and smoothly with this new device. In other words, the maker of the first safety razor had to lay the foundations for all future business with an educational campaign."

*"The Principles of Practical Publicity, being a Treatise on the Art of Advertising," by Truman A. DeWeese, 2d ed. Geo. W. Jacobs & Co., Phila., 1906.

It is our problem in public health to arouse a slumbering humanity to full realization and meaning of the frightful fact that disease germs cause the death of over 50 per cent. of the human race; that in addition to this awful loss of life there is suffering which can hardly be imagined, that the poverty incident to these distressing diseases is perfectly appalling. Humanity aroused to the full force of these facts, we must convince it that this sinful sacrifice of human life is almost wholly needless. Then maybe confront startled humanity and say:

> "Duller wouldst thou be than the fat weed
> That roots itself at ease on Lethe's wharf
> Wouldst thou not stir in this."

We must get our facts before the public in such form that:

Everybody will see them.
Everybody will read them.
Nobody can fail to understand them.
No one can forget them.
Nobody can be comfortable until wrongs are righted.

He who runs must see, read, understand, appreciate and remember, and this above all—he must act; act in the living present.

In putting these facts before the public we must bear in mind that "occasional spasmodic spurts of publicity do not pay." It is the continuity of advertising that gradually builds up a market for a product. Keeping everlastingly at it is what pays. "It is the constant dropping of the water of publicity that wears away the stone of indifference." We must make you need public health as much as Uneeda Biscuit.

We need more symbols suggesting public health, as the Double-Red Cross now appearing on the public horizon suggests the campaign against tuberculosis. By these symbols we shall conquer. They should be as familiar to every country boy as is now the little dog listening to "His Master's Voice." Every child must be made to feel that public health

means money-saving, life-saving and untold blessing to humanity.

This is the function of general publicity in public health. It aims to lay the foundation of all future business of saving life, of restoring humanity to health and happiness, and of abolishing a large percentage of all poverty through a continuous educational campaign.

Right publicity, however, will do more than to attract attention and to interest. It will convince. It will create a new demand as definite as the demand for the safety razor. But if only general publicity is employed in our work we may be doomed to failure, or at least to a delay that is deadly.

We want to get results NOW.
We want action.
We want city, state and nation to clean house.
We want pure water.
We want pure milk.
We want pure food.
We want clean homes.
We want clean streets.
We want clean factories.
We want fresh air, and we want sunshine.
AND WE WANT THEM NOW.

To get these without delay, we must attract attention and interest, but we must also convince, and this is where direct publicity comes in.

Direct publicity in public health will confine itself largely to local issues; to applying the general principles to local conditions; to hammering the proposition home; to getting the locality into action. The attention arrested, the interest aroused, we must convince of specific facts and needs if action is to follow. This must be done by individual appeal and through personal correspondence, with a skillfully devised system of follow-up letters, supplemented by effective circulars, attractive leaflets and winning booklets; by posters and placards, by lectures and by public meetings. Enlightened

and aroused public sentiment must demand that conditions be changed in specific ways, and whatever brings this to pass is RIGHT PUBLICITY.

If asked, How are we to accomplish all this in the field of public health? The answer is—Pay for publicity. If merchants and manufacturers can get returns on thousands of millions of dollars expended each year in practical publicity, so can we. The only difference is, our returns will not be in dollars, but in lives; not in dividends, but in health, in happiness, in a greater wealth of social well-being.

If asked, What is the first thing to do in putting money into publicity? The answer is, Add to your staff such a man as the one who made the Shredded Wheat Biscuit famous. Pay him a big salary if need be. Send him off to some quiet nook to write copy. Let him get up his copy just as he now gets it up for the magazines, his purpose always being "To hit the reader between the eyes with a Shredded Wheat Biscuit."

Of course, we have to relieve the suffering about us. That is wise, proper, kind-hearted and generous. But if we had $100,000 to spend in stamping out disease I venture to say we could do more with it and relieve more suffering in the long run by putting it into publicity, as I have indicated, than we could by spending it in home relief or hospitals.

Through practical publicity, both general and direct, during the past year and a half in New York State there has been secured an expenditure of public and private funds for tuberculosis hospitals, dispensaries, nurses and special enterprises, of over a million dollars. Assuming that each of these hospitals and dispensaries will be maintained at least ten years, the amount thus devoted to care, cure and prevention of tuberculosis, as the result of an expenditure of about $33,000, will not be less than $3,900,000. This has been done by amateurs in the publicity game. What might have been done by a professional—a master in the art of publicity?

I fear that many of our great philanthropists and some of our social workers sometimes fail to have a proper regard

for practical business principles. In these days of big business organization, what factory forgets to plan for the marketing of its product? Yet the most successful business men the world has ever known have established great institutions for the production of scientific information without apparently having made adequate provision for marketing that invaluable product.

The Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, the Carnegie Institution, the Henry Phipps Institute—all are at work discovering and refining truth and producing knowledge. Have they given due attention to the importance of creating a widespread demand for these wares?

If not, it remains for us as social workers to market that product; if we must, to create a market for it. There is a congestion of unused product in these great information factories, for the popular demand is lacking.

We must get the goods into circulation, and to get the goods into circulation we must have a larger appropriation for the advertising department of our business.

There is now a lack of co-operation between the producing and the advertising department. This is a vital weakness in the organization of social and philanthropic work, and it must be remedied if ultimate loss is to be averted. "The manufacturing organization and the advertising must be coordinated on a smooth working and effective basis," to employ again the language of the Shredded Wheat Man. "There must be harmonious action between them. They cannot be disassociated in any successful scheme for marketing a product. They cannot work at cross purposes. The selling force must follow up the advertising campaign and the advertising campaign must be planned and conducted with reference to the trade conditions."

RIGHT PUBLICITY IN CHARITY ORGANIZATION WORK

BY FRANCIS H. MCLEAN, FIELD SECRETARY COMMITTEE ON EXTENSION OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION

There was one thing at least in Mr. Shaw's address which we should take home to ourselves. I speak as an old newspaper man myself. It is the attempt to mould what shall appear in the newspapers in our own moulds. I don't know whether any of you realize what it means to a newspaper man to receive something which has been worked out by yourself and not in consultation with him and which typifies your idea of what should appear in the press, rather than his idea of what news is. I can tell you confidently that that means to him not news in its final shape; but something which he will take in a tolerant spirit and get into the paper if he can. And he is still seeking for news from you.

Last year one of the biggest financial campaigns carried on by any Associated Charities in the country was begun in a southern city by a newspaper which stood sponsor for the movement, and started with an editorial column and a half upon the Associated Charities methods. It was one of the best expositions of the real charity organization principles which I have seen. That editorial was written entirely by a young editorial writer who had been brought into contact with the Associated Charities, and in consultation frequently with the general secretary of the society. When the moment came for him to write, he wrote with the fullest, deepest understanding of what we were working for. Those of you who were present at the meeting of this committee in Richmond last year may remember some statements which I think rather narrowed the ideas of publicity, although they were presented by a newspaper man. I think that Mr. Shaw of Washington—not Dr. Shaw here—made a distinct mistake in imagining that our appeal to the newspaper community must be made as a rule through the medium of pathos; that our appeals must necessarily be pathetic ones. I think there is nothing more vicious than the newspaper story which he said had appealed to one of his own reporters, and which appeared with all the pepper

and salt which could be put into it. There is one of the points where we, in our touch with the newspaper man, must emphasize the fact that we are not to appear as a one day's sensation. We must be carefully watching, just as the best advertisers watch, that we are constantly before the public in such a guise that we will always be read by some group or other of those to whom we preach. It is true that this illustration was successful at the start. And it is true also that if that particular society had continued in that course a month or so, the number of people who would have read the appeals would have gradually diminished. It is with constant variation and constant presentation, running the whole gamut of human emotions from light comedy to deep tragedy, from the individual case of need up to the social need, and from the social need down again to the individual. And the efforts should be constantly toward variation; so that while an appeal for a tuberculous working girl may touch the hearts of the shop girls of a city, our next appeal drawing attention to certain sanitary conditions may draw certain young lawyers to our rescue. And the simple story of how an immigrant family had been keeping a national holiday with certain accessories, might bring to our door an Italian family who had forgotten their countrymen, with a wish to be of service to the society in whatever related to the interest of their countrymen.

In other words, appeal cannot be made at one time to the whole newspaper reading people. It must be to one interest, and to another, and to another, all along the line. If we put aside for the moment the first-page article, all the other pages may or may not be read. The two important elements to secure reading are continual variation and a conscious appeal to this or that definite portion of the community.

RIGHT PUBLICITY FOR INSTITUTIONAL WORK, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE

BY WILLIAM C. GRAVES, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

Publicity, as I see it, serves two fundamental purposes. It helps you get something you want. It helps you protect what you possess. Viewing publicity thus, "What Constitutes Right Publicity for Institutional Work, Public or Private?"

If it is desired to change the equipment or alter the service of a group of public institutions—*to get something you want*—the following plan of publicity might be tried:

Be sure that the equipment and service need changing. Then begin the campaign of public education looking to rational remedies. Secure a statement of facts. Lay them before the leading newspaper editors of the state, or community. Ask them for a continuous co-operation until the proposed campaign is ended with success. Nine editors out of ten will meet such a proposition in the spirit in which it is made. If there is a real need of change, if the persons voicing that need are sincere and capable, the newspapers will help, in that peculiarly efficient way so well known to them. Try also to secure the services of press associations distributing news and plate matter.

When newspaper support is secured, you must have material for publications. Here comes a vital period. On what policy shall publications be prepared? A choice may be taken between two methods. A man, or a set of men, may be selected as responsible for evil conditions. The campaign, on this basis, would be personal criticism, or even abuse, of him or them. The other way is to eliminate personality and to blame the unsatisfactory conditions upon a system that has become inadequate or obsolete, when applied to the advanced needs of the times. One of these methods is piratical or, at least, punitive. The other is constructive. I prefer the latter. It is the more decent. Except in rare cases it is the more efficient. Whatever policy is adopted, let the campaign of publicity be continuous. One or two big shots are not as effective as

repeated pounding with the guns. Success in advertising rests upon a continuous service. Keep the newspapers supplied with material. First use your facts. Then get clergymen to preach advocating the needed change. Have clubs of various kinds adopt resolutions endorsing the campaign. Have lectures, illustrated with lantern slides. All these procedures are news and further, in themselves, are valuable forms of publicity. Print and circulate a bulletin, if the campaign funds permit. Use every avenue of publicity.

The campaign thus far is focused chiefly on the education of the public. At the same time, if possible, friendly relations should be sought with officials responsible for the administration of the institutions selected for improvement and with politicians chiefly of the dominant party. Much of the bitterness and fighting among so-called reformers and politicians is caused by work beyond arms' length. There is too much heaving of rocks from a distance. The reformers appear to believe that all politicians are bad. This is not true. Politicians appear to believe that all reformers have long hair, wear green spectacles, and are bilious cranks. Of course this is false. It is ridiculous in these modern days of surveys and practical suggestions based upon them. Then let the so-called reformers and the politicians get together. Let them learn the truth about each other. Let each concede something to the honest opinions and to the limitations of the other. Let the publicity regarding politicians be fair to them. Try for a reasonable harmony of the spirit. Then an upbuilding should be possible.

If there can be no agreement, remember, with Carlyle, that "Hannibal's rock-rending vinegar lay in the sweet new wine." Let there be rock-rending for an ideal. Newspapers know how to rend rocks with sweet wine gone to vinegar. They also know how to use the stiletto or the bludgeon. If you are right, they will help you fight. But when it is over and diplomacy again holds sway, it is well to remember that great reforms, at the start, usually are based on reasonable compromises. The recognized beginning of a practical reform means its ultimate completion, if able persons are at the helm.

Taking the other purpose of publicity—*to help you protect what you possess.* First have a care that you are a worthy steward. If you are not, hide in the cyclone cellar and have your meals served therein. If you are honest and capable, publicity will be your stanchest friend at all times.

As public confidence in public institutions is the basis of their complete success, I believe in wide publicity regarding their equipment and service. Unfortunately in the minds of many people there is a certain mystery about public institutions. Suspicion usually accompanies mystery. I believe this mystery and suspicion can, and should, be dispelled. It is particularly true that little is known by the general public about those institutions which are remote from large centers of population. This is so most frequently of hospitals for the insane. From the nature of the disease treated, these institutions are located away from large cities or, when in or on the edge of large cities, are fenced or walled. There is a feeling in the public mind that things are being kept quiet at the institutions, where unpleasant things must happen because of the violent characteristics of some forms of insanity. In my judgment there should be an aggressive campaign to disabuse the public of the grotesque exaggerations of comparatively trivial events in a place where things are bound to happen. Taking hospitals for the insane as sample institutions I would suggest that the public be educated regarding them in three ways:

1. By invitation to civic and religious bodies to visit the institution freely at any time. The entire institution, except the disturbed ward, should be shown and it should be explained why certain parts are inadequate, wasteful or out of repair, why certain methods obtain and just what the needs are and how those needs can be met. There should be an explanation that it is injurious to disturbed patients for strangers to visit them. If there is suspicion that this is not true, let the delegation appoint one of its members. Take him to the disturbed and to the filthy wards, too, and tell him the precise truth.

2. By a clinical service to physicians in the neighborhood of the institution. This not merely has the great advantage of publicity among professional men of wide in-

fluence, but the knowledge among nurses and attendants that outside physicians are to come into the institution for clinics puts them on their best behavior. Furthermore, insane patients suffering from intercurrent diseases will have the benefit of consultations not otherwise available; and the visiting physicians will gain knowledge useful in private practice and therefore of benefit to the public.

3. By newspaper publicity. I believe newspaper men should be taken into the confidence of superintendents. I know whereof I speak when I affirm that such confidence rarely is misplaced. Its benefits are legion. I do not mean that the seamy side of things should be purposely dragged into the glare of publicity, but the newspapers should be made aware of the good and the bad and the why and the wherefore. Frequent publications of the truth will keep the public acquainted with the conditions and needs and will awaken a sympathy and interest, which, in my judgment, are sure to make themselves felt in the legislature, the real fountain-head of all lasting institutional progress. In all cases where reporters have an inkling of some unpleasant story, I believe the facts should be told. In the long run this is the best course, even if it hurts sometimes.

The same general policy can be applied to any public institution.

During the campaign of the last three years for the upbuilding of the equipment and service of the seventeen state charitable institutions in Illinois a bulletin has been printed and widely circulated by the State Board of Charities. All vital questions have been discussed with great frankness. The newspapers have been given freely all information as to conditions just as they were, good or bad. The result, while sometimes irritable to responsible persons, has on the whole been extremely beneficial. Without the sympathy, the confidence and the continuous aid of newspaper men the achievements of the last three years, in my opinion, would have been impossible.

Regarding private institutions the wide publicity advisable in the case of public institutions is not desirable for obvious reasons. However, in my judgment, the patrons of private institutions and charitable organizations should be given the widest freedom of inspection and criticism. It is wholesome

for private institutions to have inspection and criticism by a body like a state board of charities, which publishes its findings. It is a rare thing that such a board will abuse its privileges. A knowledge on the part of proprietors and employes that visits are to be made and that public criticism is to be passed surely tends to elevate the standard of service of private institutions. The advertising value of published favorable reports of a disinterested public board is inestimable. It is legitimate to use such reports, even if such course is not strictly ethical from a medical point of view.

Publicity has come to stay. It is the militant, efficient friend of the poor and unfortunate. It is the terror of the evildoer. It fills a place so peculiarly its own that, so far as I know at least, there is no substitute for it in upbuilding and protecting honest and capable institutional work, public and private.

PUBLICITY AND CHARITABLE FINANCE

BY O. F. LEWIS, SECRETARY FINANCE COMMITTEE NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

Assuming that the special question before us is the development of the financial resources of a charitable society, I would suggest two factors of importance:

(a) All forms of legitimate publicity.

(b) The financial secretary.

Let us consider, first, the relation of publicity to charitable finance. The charitable society is dependent upon the public for its financial support. The public is dependent upon the charitable society for the knowledge of what the society is doing that justifies financial support. The public learns of the society's work and its needs in two ways—directly and indirectly. Directly, through receiving the organization's reports, appeals, leaflets, an occasional invitation to an annual meeting. Mainly, however, through its appeals.

Indirectly, the public learns of the society mainly through the columns of the newspapers. The press is primarily a con-

veyor of news. It is not, in its news columns, deliberative. The city editor, who has much to say as to what goes into the paper and what goes into the waste basket, may be in private life an annual contributor to the society. But at the "desk" in the newspaper office, he is a ravenous collector of news, competing with other collectors of news in other newspaper offices. The charitable society is practically non-existent to him unless *news* emanates from the society. *News* differs from editorials as a fact differs from a mental reflection. Facts, or the semblance of facts, for the city editor; reflections for the editorial columns.

For every newspaper bought there are several readers. In most cities four readers to a paper is the estimate. In New York City the average is lower, because of the deluge of journals. What is in the paper is read far more carefully by far more people than is often supposed. The editor of a leading New York daily has just told me that, however insignificant the item, and however much it may be buried in the paper, he is every time astonished to find to what an extent it is ferreted out and read. It is a natural conclusion that items concerning the society's work, be they insignificant or buried, will be read, if published. But they will not be published—in the news columns —unless they have "human interest."

To what extent do charitable societies appreciate what is readable? "Readable" does not always mean that which is "important." "Readable" does not always mean that which is "educational." How many times the cub reporter writes of some function as being *interesting as well as* instructive. We charity workers are prone to say that the public needs educating as to our work. We hold that the public should understand the principles of the "new charity." But we hear in newspaper offices that whereas *we* believe that the public ought to be educated as to charitable principles, *we ourselves* ought to be educated as to how to present these principles and our own work to the public. The news columns of the press, for instance, call for human interest stories. May it not sometimes happen that in return the society sends down to the newspaper office its last annual report, marking for special attention the columns of statistics that show the great increase in the society's work, and also the pages devoted to its financial needs?

Some of us are perhaps afraid of the papers, for the alleged reason that they "get things twisted." The principles of accuracy and intellectual honesty, thoroughness and conservatism in records that characterize modern charitable societies, are apt to lead officials of charitable societies to say, "Well, we'd rather not be reported than be reported incorrectly." But is the newspaper report so incorrect as it is *insufficient?* Is the published story of the alleged case of starvation, written up by the reporter who was only a few hours ago at our office, so incorrect as it is uneven, emphasizing certain features that to us who deal with the case seem perhaps irrelevant or transitory? Yet what remains in the memory of the general reader? Perhaps these things, "The family is very destitute, perhaps hungry. There has been real suffering. The charity society is helping." And the reading public draws the inferences that the society is doing what it ought to do, at the place where it ought to be, and also that perhaps the family needs money.

In short, I raise the question whether a sensational press story really hurts as much as it helps, if it indicates that the society is prompt and efficient. We cannot blame the newspaper for condensing. Moreover, the newspaper, in condensing, cannot become a syllabus of every event it reports. It emphasizes the striking and the graphic. But do not charitable societies do just about that in their written or printed appeals? Do *we* think that because we cannot afford to tire *our* appeal readers, we are thereby distorting or falsifying facts? We are *selecting* three paragraphs or so of persuasive material out of our whole stock. So with the newspapers which select the interesting and the emphatic.

I have assumed that the attitude of the society toward furnishing news is largely passive. Its attitude, in my opinion, should be active, because, as stated above, the society depends upon the public for its financial support. How great a section of the public does the society reach by its several thousand annual reports? How large a section of the annual report is read by those who receive it? How many leaflets a year reach the public from the society? How many of the society's appeals are educational? Each society, if it calmly figures up its publicity power from its own distributed literature, must

recognize that it reaches comparatively few of the inhabitants of the community in this manner.

Therefore, the value of a "press agent" for the society. Financial secretary and press agent should, if possible, be the same person. The attractiveness of social work is bringing to it men—and I would not except women, too—who have developed more or less their news sense. The smaller societies will naturally seek to combine these activities with other necessary functions. But my point is that while the smaller society may not afford a press agent and financial agent for those purposes only, some person should be chosen, in filling another position, such as assistant secretary, who can be a real financial agent and real press agent.

The press agent of the society should be more than a furnisher of readable news to the papers. He should establish friendly relationship with the representatives of the press. He should be solicitous of the reporters' interests, remembering that by giving them readable news he is helping them to earn their salaries. He must be just with the newspapers. While it is legitimate to give exclusive stories to individual papers, general announcements by the society should, when possible, be furnished to all papers at the same time. The press agent should be constantly watching for phases of his society's activity which will interest the public. Articles written by him in news style will be gladly received by the papers. The articles may not always be published, but they are apt to appear in some form or other.

A policy of co-operation with the press not only increases the desirable publicity of the society, but lessens the chances of wrong publicity. A reporter once told me of two charitable institutions that he was "covering" on regular assignments. The one institution seemed to him to dread some possible misrepresentation that might be put upon its actions by the representatives of the press, and so preserved, whenever possible, a Fabian policy in giving out news. Naturally the city editor's desk could but observe the reticence of the institution, while the reporter, annoyed by the difficulties in securing "stories," may have sometimes furnished items to his paper reflecting, in the absence of more definite knowledge, his own opinions as to the progress of the events which he was assigned to cover.

And so this institution continued to feel that it suffered at the hands of the press.

The other institution which the reporter mentioned did not seek a sensational display of publicity, but observing the principle that a charitable institution should account to the public, believed that the daily press constitutes one such agency. Not only was the institution solicitous to give the reporters news when there *was* news, but it notified in confidence and in advance the trusted representatives of the press as to its movements, plans, future events. My experience of some years with New York reporters and with those of other cities has convinced me that such confidence will not be abused, if you pick your paper. By that I mean that the occasional yellow journal whose reports cannot be "held in" is but proving the exception to the rule. In some cities the conditions may be different, but my experience in New York has been that, if you ask the New York reporter to hold a story "for release," and show him *why* you wish it held, it will be held.

The ten-minute limit confines my remarks on the use of appeals to but a few sentences. It is self-evident that appeals should be honest, interesting, important, varied, and timely. Most societies, I suppose, are compelled to give only occasional, though intense attention to their appeals. But the society with a financial secretary can give constant attention to building up a contributors' list not only through cumulative study of the financial resources of the community, but through the establishment of personal relations between the society and the contributors. Let us not believe that we can establish and maintain such relations satisfactorily by thinking of our contributors only at "appeal time." From a sense of duty they may renew their gifts—save the ten to twenty per cent. who lapse yearly. But if we really wish to acquire friends whose interest may not be immediately expressed in increased contributions perhaps, but who will be added, one by one, to those in hearty sympathy with the society, we must be thinking about the interest, the opinions and the financial help of our contributors all the time. It has been my aim during the last two years to establish a personal relationship as far as possible, and of course mainly through letters, with all of our contributors.

Let us remember this, that because a society has a list of contributors it does not follow that they are vitally interested in the society. In fact the probabilities are that a very large proportion of the members are far more interested in some other form of charity, and are supporting that other society, or those other societies, far more liberally. The problem of the financial secretary is, then, to gain increased interest from those many members who could be much more liberal if they were more interested.

For details of methods, so far as the particular society which I represent has worked them out, I beg to refer to the New York C. O. S. Exhibit of the Bureau of Appeals, at the Conference.

In conclusion, may I again say that in the development of the financial resources of a charitable society, I urge among other factors two factors of importance:

(a) All forms of legitimate publicity.

(b) A financial secretary.

PUBLICITY IN RELIEF WORK

BY FREDERICK D. GREENE, ASSISTANT GENERAL AGENT OF THE NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR

(*Illustrated by the Stereopticon.*)

Publicity is letting the public know.

The public should not only be allowed to know about all work that concerns the public good, it should be made to know.

This principle applied to relief work might be bluntly stated as follows: Do all the good you can, to all the people you can, and let as many as possible know it.

It may seem a far cry from this to the scriptural injunction, "Let not they left hand know what thy right hand doeth." In reality there is no conflict but simply a different point of view, the one being social and objective, and the other personal and subjective. The early conception of charity as an individual virtue

is giving place to a better conception of making amends for our collective sins as a community. Philanthropic publicity is to be condemned only when used for a vain exploitation of the doer, not when it popularizes the good done.

The necessity for charity is in itself a thing to be regretted. The paramount duty of the philanthropist is to put himself out of business as soon as possible. This can best be done by hastening such an adjustment of economic and hygienic conditions as will reduce to a minimum the human breakage and human waste that is now going on.

The fact that this task is one for which we are all responsible, and which cannot be accomplished without the co-operation of the entire community, not only justifies but also necessitates the fullest publicity in charitable work.

The causes of dependency are numerous and far reaching; no less so should be the channels of publicity. Among these the press stands first, because it is the most direct and effective.

The press forms public opinion in any case, and unless enlightened it is a serious obstacle to progress. A philanthropic worker can not spend time to better advantage, therefore, than in helping a reporter or an editor to get a clear and sympathetic view of the principles and methods of right relief work. Such a viewpoint will give higher value to all his writing. As a rule there is no class more ready to take the right point of view when given the facts that prove it.

A sense for news and a knowledge of the channels by which publicity may best be gained, is a most valuable part of the equipment of any social worker and may well be cultivated by all. This is distinct from the ability to write up a subject with just the form and flavor demanded by the press. The latter is an art in itself. It requires a lightness and freshness of touch that is hard for the philanthropic worker, absorbed in his task, to command.

Important announcements, discussions of policy, financial statements and formal appeals should be carefully prepared by those in charge of the work, and given to all the papers simultaneously.

But in descriptive articles each paper desires to serve up the "story" in its own style, and therefore all that is wanted is the facts and figures, together with such incidents and arguments as will make the dry bones live.

It is a personal service to any reporter to furnish him with really available material. Deliberate violation of confidence or misstatement of facts is not to his interest. It is unfair to expect space to be given to items that have become stale or that never had news value. On the other hand, incidents in themselves trivial, are often so unusual, humorous or pathetic as to gain insertion, and may serve as a peg on which matters of real significance may be hung.

Aside from those on the regular staff, there are literary free lances who are glad of material for feature articles and Sunday specials.

In some matters the best way to get attention is by a "letter to the editor."

Photographs are a great aid in securing publication of articles. They should be selected and taken in such a way as to violate the rights and feelings of no individual. They should give a true impression of the needs and of the results. The ability, at least, to make correct photographic exposures is of great value to the social worker. Professional photographers are expensive, hard to get when wanted and often miss the point of the picture, its social significance.

The use of paid appeals in the advertising columns of newspapers may well receive the attention of large organizations in large cities. Too much should not be expected, but it is worth trying.

It hardly seems necessary to argue for the legitimacy of the principle, provided the advertising pays and is in keeping with the spirit and object of the cause.

It may be said that some people may be tempted to become applicants for aid through such advertisements. If worthy they will be welcome, and if not the facts will come out in the usual way.

It may also be objected that the press should be willing to give all needed publicity to worthy charities, and that paying for appeals would create a mercenary attitude among publishers. On the other hand, it should be remembered that papers are published for the sake of the readers, that such appeals are not news, and that in large cities the number of societies desiring free notice is prohibitive. Such free insertion as may be given should therefore be gratefully considered as a contribution to the cause, rather than a right to be demanded. If, therefore, a society wishes to make direct and repeated appeals for funds, in its own way and time, it is only fair that such space should be paid for, especially where publishers are willing to make a charity discount of 50 per cent.

There seems to be no evidence that paid appeals have made publishers less generous in free insertions of items.

Advertisements for charity proceed on the safe assumption that there are, among the multitude, many who should be interested, but whose names are not included even in a large mailing list. Those who respond are a new constituency, secured with no compulsion beyond the appeal of the facts presented. If given proper attention, such friends will become permanent contributors, and this fact should be considered, comparing the returns with the cost.

Charitable advertisements should be,

1. Of sufficient educative value to justify their use apart from financial returns.

2. Brief—as a rule, not over two inches, single column.

3. Prominent by position—surrounded by reading—rather than of large size but lost in the other advertisements.

4. Headed so as to catch the eye and stay in the memory.

5. Timed so as to take advantage of special occasions, seasons and weather.

6. In good taste as to idea, expression and typographical display.

7. Keyed so that returns from each advertisement or publication can be traced. This may be done by some variation in the address of the Treasurer.

The following advertisements, which have been used during the past year in New York, are good illustrations of the theory above expressed:

Face the Facts

During the last 4½ months we have had to spend for food alone, in relieving suffering families,

$22,000

as compared with

$10,600

for the same period a year ago.

Have you $5 to feed a hungry mother and four children one week? R. S. Minturn, Treasurer, Room 211, No. 105 East 22d St.

R. FULTON CUTTING, President.

N. Y. ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR.

Our 65 Years' Experience

In philanthropic work is at your service in planning how to do the most good with your money.

Our new illustrated Annual Report sent on request by R. S. Minturn, Treas., Room 213, No. 105 E. 22d Street.

R. FULTON CUTTING, President.

N. Y. ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR.

Don't Forget

to send your

Fresh Air Gift

$5.00 means a life-giving fortnight at SEA BREEZE for a hospital convalescent or an overburdened mother or a delicate school child.

We gave 33,000 outings last year.

Send to R. S. Minturn, Treas., Room 210, No. 105 E. 22d St., New York.

N. Y. ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR

R. FULTON CUTTING, President.

SOCIAL PHOTOGRAPHY; HOW THE CAMERA MAY HELP IN THE SOCIAL UPLIFT

BY LEWIS W. HINE, THE SURVEY, NEW YORK CITY

(*Illustrated by the Stereopticon.*)

For a moment, now, let us suppose that we as a body were working, against bitter opposition, for better conditions in the street trades of a certain state. In the heat of the conflict we have enlisted the services of a sympathetic photographer. He has recorded some typical and appealing scenes in the life of the newsboy and his co-workers.

They show little chaps six years old selling until late at night; little girls exposed to public life with its temptations and dangers; school children starting out at 5 a. m. to peddle and going again after school and all day Saturday and Sunday; evening scenes where the little fellows work late in and out of the saloons, learning the best way to get extra money from the drunks, and where they vary the monotony between hard-luck stories by pitching pennies, far into the night hours.

We might not agree as to their exact use, but surely we would not stand in the way if it were proposed that we launch them into every possible channel of publicity in our appeal for public sympathy.

Long ago the business man settled, in the affirmative, the question, "Does Advertising Pay?" and the present status was well expressed in Collier's Weekly not long ago: "To the range of advertising there is no limit, and where all are tooting the loud bazoo, the problem of any one making himself heard is no slight one. Advertising is art; it is literature; it is invention. Failure is its one cardinal sin." Now, the social worker, with the most human, living material as his stock in trade, is still going through the old steps of doubt and conviction. But they must end one way, for the public will know what its servants are doing, and it is for these Servants of the Common Good to educate and direct public opinion. We are only beginning to realize the innumerable methods of reaching this great public.

I wonder, sometimes, what an enterprising manufacturer would do if his wares, instead of being inanimate things, were the problems and activities of life itself, with all their possibilities of human appeal. Would he not grasp eagerly at such opportunities to play upon the sympathies of his customers as are afforded by the camera.

Take the photograph of a tiny spinner in a Carolina cotton-mill. As it is, it makes an appeal. Reinforce it with one of those social pen-pictures of Hugo's in which he says, "The ideal of oppression was realized by this dismal servitude. When they find themselves in such condition at the dawn of existence—so young, so feeble, struggling among men—what passes in these souls fresh from God? But while they are children they escape because they are little. The smallest hole saves them. When they are men, the millstone of our social system comes in contact with them and grinds them."

With a picture thus sympathetically interpreted, what a lever we have for the social uplift.

The photograph of an adolescent, a weed-like youth, who has been doffing for eight years in another mill, carries its own lesson.

Now, let us take a glance under Brooklyn Bridge at 3 a. m. on a cold, snowy night. While these boys we see there wait, huddled, yet alert, for a customer, we might pause to ask where lies the power in a picture. Whether it be a painting or a photograph, the picture is a symbol that brings one immediately into close touch with reality. It speaks a language learned early in the race and in the individual—witness the ancient picture writers and the child of today absorbed in his picture book. For us older children, the picture continues to tell a story packed into the most condensed and vital form. In fact, it is often more effective than the reality would have been, because, in the picture, the non-essential and conflicting interests have been eliminated. The picture is the language of all nationalities and all ages. The increase, during recent years, of ilustrations in newspapers, books, exhibits and the like gives ample evidence of this.

The photograph has an added realism of its own; it has an inherent attraction not found in other forms of illustration.

For this reason the average person believes implicitly that the photograph cannot falsify. Of course, you and I know that this unbounded faith in the integrity of the photograph is often rudely shaken, for, while photographs may not lie, liars may photograph. It becomes necessary, then, in our revelation of the truth, to see to it that the camera we depend upon contracts no bad habits.

Not long ago, a leader in social work, who had previously told me that photographs had been faked so much they were of no use to the work, assured Editor Kellogg that the photographs of child labor in the Carolinas would stand as evidence in any court of law.

Moral: Despise not the camera, even though yellow-photography does exist.

With several hundred photos like those which I have shown, backed with records of observations, conversations, names and addresses, are we not better able to refute those who, either optimistically or hypocritically, spread the news that there is no child labor in New England?

Perhaps you are weary of child labor pictures. Well, so are the rest of us, but we propose to make you and the whole country so sick and tired of the whole business that when the time for action comes, child-labor pictures will be records of the past.

The artist, Burne-Jones, once said he should never be able to paint again if he saw much of those hopeless lives that have no remedy. What a selfish, cowardly attitude!

How different is the stand taken by Hugo, that the great social peril is darkness and ignorance. "What then," he says, "is required? Light! Light in floods!"

The dictum, then, of the social worker is "Let there be light;" and in this campaign for light we have for our advance agent the light writer—the photo-graph.

This is the era of the specialist. Curtis, Burton Holmes, Stoddard and others have done much along special lines of social photography. The greatest advance in social work is to be made by the popularizing of camera work, so these records may be made by those who are in the thick of the battle. It is not a difficult proposition. In every group of

workers there is sure to be one at least who is interested in the camera. If you can decide that photography would be a good thing for you, get a camera, set aside a small appropriation and some definite time for the staff photographer, go after the matter with a sympathetic enthusiasm (for camera work without enthusiasm is like a picnic in the rain). The local photographer (unless he is a rare one) cannot do much for you. Fight it out yourself, for better little technique and much sympathy than the reverse. Returns? Of course they will follow. Ask Mrs. Rogers, of Indianapolis, whose plea for bath suits (on the screen) was a real factor in procuring them. Ask Mr. Weller, of Pittsburg, one of the pioneers in social photography.

At the close of the Round Table which follows this talk, I shall be glad to meet those of you who are interested in the question of enlarging your scope in camera work. If a camera club could be the outcome, so much the better.

Apart from the charitable or pathological phases of social work, what a field for photographic art lies untouched in the industrial world.

There is urgent need for the intelligent interpretation of the world's workers, not only for the people of today, but for future ages.

Years ago, George Eliot suggested the need for the social photographer in these words:

> "All honor and reverence to the divine beauty of form," says George Eliot (Adam Bede). "Let us cultivate it to the utmost in men, women and children, in our gardens, in our houses; but let us love that other beauty, too, which lies in no secret of proportion, but in the secret of deep human sympathy.
>
> "Paint us an angel, if you can, with floating violet robe and a face paled by the celestial light; paint us a Madonna turning her mild face upward, and opening her arms to welcome the divine glory, but do not impose on us any esthetic rules which shall banish from the reign of art those old women with work-worn hands scraping carrots, those heavy clowns taking holiday in a dingy pothouse, those rounded backs and weather-beaten faces that have bent over the spade and done the rough work of the world, those homes with their tin pans, their brown pitchers, their rough curs and their clusters of onions.

"It is needful we should remember their existence, else we may happen to leave them out of our religion and philosophy, and frame lofty theories which only fit a world of extremes. Therefore, let art always remind us of them; therefore, let us always have men ready to give the loving pains of life to the faithful representing of commonplace things, men who see beauty in the commonplace things, and delight in showing how kindly the light of heaven falls on them."

THE EVOLUTION OF THE ANNUAL REPORT

BY J. W. MAGRUDER, GENERAL SECRETARY, FEDERATED CHARITIES OF BALTIMORE

If we speak of the Annual Report as an evolution, it implies that long before the report was actually born it was embryonically alive.

The truth is that it had already taken definite shape in the minds of thinking people, from the moment they began to see that indiscriminate giving, instead of relieving poverty, was itself a chief cause of poverty, and that the public could have just as many dependent people as it was willing to pay for.

This inborn conviction years ago found expression in the newspapers, in interviews, letters and editorials, in which the writers protested against the misuse of money to the destruction of the poor and demanded a common-sense charity such as helps the poor to help themselves and results in permanent improvement of their condition. Out of this agitation came the pioneer organization for intelligent, thorough-going work among the poor, significantly known as the "Association" not for the Relief of the Poor, but "for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor."

The first Annual Reports, and those immediately succeeding, were expositions of sound principles of philanthropy and contained at least the rudiments of later-day programs for social improvement. Unfortunately this pioneer spirit did not long dominate. Within less than a decade the organized move-

ment and its yearly reports fell into a state of arrested development. The one, and almost the only, plea came to be for more money for more families in more need. The condition of the poor was so far from being improved that their number was reported as on the increase. Poverty was being perpetuated and multiplied by what it fed on.

But the original spirit never wholly died out. And in 1877, when a clergyman who had been with the newly-formed London Charity Organization Society came to America and to Buffalo, proclaiming the old doctrine in terms of the new experience, Buffalo rallied to him, and other American cities followed, and today we are holding in this national capital of the C. O. S. a Conference with eleven hundred or more delegates from nearly every state and the Dominion of Canada.

It is the old spirit of improvement reincarnated. It has resulted in a series of Annual Reports which constitute an invaluable body of literature. The appeal is no longer for relief for the poor, except as relief is one of the many means of improving the condition of the poor. Nor is poverty treated as a necessary evil, but as curable and preventable. The report is a record of the latest discoveries of causes and remedies. If ten years old, it is as much out of date nowadays as any other ten-year-old publication on any scientific subject. The Annual Report, therefore, has come to be more than an account of stewardship to contributors and patrons. It is an educational and campaign document in the crusade against poverty. And one of the latest developments is here in Buffalo, where in strict harmony with the idea of propaganda, the C. O. S. is publishing 7,500 copies of the Annual Report, only the smaller part of which goes to regular contributors, and the remainder to non-contributors, with a view to enlisting leading people, and through them the entire community, as an army of "organized love," not only for the improvement of the condition of the poor, but for the final conquest of poverty.

THE ESSENTIALS OF AN ANNUAL REPORT

BY EDWIN D. SOLENBERGER, GENERAL SECRETARY PENNSYLVANIA CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

An annual report ought to be issued *annually* and it should be a report of the past year's work and not merely or chiefly a statement of what is proposed for the future. The report ought to show plainly, either on the inside or outside cover page, the full corporate name of the society, date when established and when incorporated, exact location of the office or offices of the society or institution, the full postoffice address and the exact period of time which the report covers. I recently had occasion to examine the reports from various parts of the country of a number of children's societies and institutions, each of which lacked one or more of these essentials.

It should be possible to learn from the annual report of a children's agency something of its functions in the community, at least from its own point of view. Statements as to the classes of children dealt with, including limitations as to color, age, sex, physical condition and religion, if any such exist, and the terms on which the children are admitted to care, are matters of legitimate interest to co-operating agencies and contributors.

Progress in the work and methods of the society or institution should be noted in the annual report. New features and extensions of old lines of activity and co-operation and affiliation with other agencies in the community ought to be included.

Changing conditions in the community which affect the work of the society or institution ought to be recorded. The superintendent of a southern orphanage, who has held the position for many years, recently told me in conversation of the effect of the Civil War upon the institution's history and policies. He also spoke of the relation between the inadequate child labor and compulsory education laws of his state and his reluctance to place out children under sixteen years of age. Neither of these important factors in the life and methods of the institution is set forth in its record of over one hundred years' work.

Again, some account of how new laws affect children's agencies should be reported. In a western state where a new juvenile court law was passed, a number of children's societies and institutions whose work was vitally affected by it made absolutely no reference to the matter.

Almost thirty years ago an eastern state passed a law forbidding the detention of children in almshouses, but the annual reports of many of the institutions most affected at that time contain no reference to this epoch-making chapter in the child-saving history of their state.

Much might be said in regard to the kind of statistical and financial statements which child-saving agencies ought to publish for the information of their contributors and others legitimately interested. Most of us fall far short of the best standards in this section of our annual reports. Clearness, uniformity, so that work can be compared from year to year, and, above all, frankness, may be put down as essentials.

Many details to be considered in making an annual report might be enumerated, but most of them have been or will be discussed by the other speakers on the subject. To sum up, an annual report should be a laboratory record of the life and growth of the society or institution and its relation to the community which it serves.

Statistics

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY JOHN KOREN, EXPERT SPECIAL AGENT, U. S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN

CENSUS STATISTICS OF THE SPECIAL CLASSES

Before another meeting of this Conference is held the next decennial census of the United States will have been taken. A general census may be described as the making of a classified inventory of the inhabitants and material resources of the country. It is a work of fundamental importance as a measure of social well-being or ill-being, of progress or decline, and provides a fund of knowledge which is essential as a basis both for rational legislation and intelligent practical endeavor.

To us, as members of this Conference, perhaps no part of the census is of so direct an interest as that relating to the dependent, defective and delinquent classes of population. Our particular concern is to learn what place they have in the general inventory and their relation to the rest of the population. In a very special sense we measure the conditions of society by the number and distribution of those who are found dependent, defective and delinquent. It is a kind of human stocktaking that should guide both our preachment and our action in dealing with some of the great problems of charities and of correction.

The last enumeration of the so-called special classes took place in 1904, or three years after the general census of the decade. The act of Congress regulating the census of 1910 wisely provides that these classes shall be included in the next enumeration. Therefore only six years will elapse between such enumerations instead of the customary ten. This marks a gain. Another obvious advantage will be that the returns in

regard to the dependent, defective and delinquent groups can be brought into comparison with the general population statistics of the same year.

The bill for the thirteenth census makes provision then for a special enumeration of paupers, prisoners, juvenile delinquents, insane, feeble-minded, blind, deaf and dumb in institutions, and inmates of benevolent institutions. Briefly stated, the enumeration will follow the plan adopted in 1904 and account for all persons belonging to these several classes who were in institutions at the beginning of 1910, the number admitted to the institutions in the course of the year, the number who are discharged, transferred or die during the twelve months, together with such facts concerning each inmate as are pertinent and can be obtained. The special effort will be to show the numerical strength of the different classes which are added to our institutional population in 1910, and to present the facts concerning the various elements constituting them.

The social importance of the ensuing reports will necessarily be of unequal value. None of them will afford a complete survey. Inmates of almshouses represent only a part of the great problem of poverty. Statistics of prisoners and juvenile delinquents in reformatories furnish only a fragmentary view of crime conditions. Although a census of the insane in private and public hospitals is a fair index of the prevalence of mental diseases, it cannot tell the whole story of insanity. An enumeration of feeble-minded in institutions, who form but a fraction of the mentally defective in the country, barely hints at the heavy social burden they entail. The blind, and deaf and dumb in institutions represent only a minority of the persons thus afflicted. Finally, the wide range of benevolence is but partially exemplified by an enumeration of the different kinds of benevolent institutions and their populations. Thus the field of inquiry is limited at many points.

The question is repeatedly asked, "Why does the Bureau of the Census confine itself to a collection of statistics of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes in institutions? It is done from necessity, not from lack of appreciation of the immense field awaiting inquiry outside of institutions. The

task of enumerating inmates of institutions is in itself formidable, especially when it involves a continuous enumeration extending over twelve months, and is all that can be undertaken at the time of a general census.

Let us see what the work means. Upwards of 10,000 institutions will enter into the enumeration of 1910, consequently, official relations must be entered into with that number and special agents appointed to do the field work in each one of them, for the census of the special classes cannot be left to the ordinary population enumerator. Special sets of schedules, instructions, etc., must be provided. Inmates of these many institutions and those admitted to them in the course of one year, concerning whom it is necessary to obtain the facts in detail, number about one million persons. There are, in addition, two or three million institution inmates in regard to whom items of personal description, etc., are dispensed with. Of the labor of classifying, tabulating, analyzing and publishing the facts gathered and insuring the correctness of it all, it is unnecessary to speak. Suffice it to say that when the finished reports are distributed, they represent several years of painstaking work and an outlay of money to be counted by the hundreds of thousands.

After all it is not so surprising that even a government lavish in providing information has not yet seen its way to go beyond the program outlined. Yet the questions of labor and expense are by no means paramount. There are other and much more fundamental obstacles. The applicability of the statistical method of inquiry or of any other method open to a governmental agency depends, in the first place, upon the availability of the primary sources of information. There is, for instance, a demand for comprehensive statistics of outdoor relief. Whence can they be obtained so long as agencies administering such relief fail to record the essential facts about their work? Of what use is it for Congress to prescribe that the statistics of crime drawn from the dockets of the criminal courts shall embrace complete information in regard to age, nationality, civil condition, etc., of each defendant, so long as there is not a single state in which the courts record these facts? There is a constant request for better information

about children who are taken in hand by public and private agencies. But experience shows that over a large part of the country the very agencies themselves neglect to obtain and preserve the data upon which the investigator must depend. It were easy but rather superfluous to multiply examples of this sort.

Coupled with the limitation imposed by the absence of sources of information is another difficulty, namely, that of securing competent investigators. There is probably no more important social problem of the hour than that of feeble-mindedness. How find out who and where the feeble-minded are outside of institutions? It has been abundantly illustrated that even a successful census of the blind cannot be taken except by specially trained enumerators. But here is an infinitely more difficult problem, since a proper census of the feeble-minded requires a high degree of skill in diagnosis which few persons possess. There has of late been an insistent demand for the inclusion of crippled and deformed children as a separate class at the census of 1910. How accomplish it? Again we are talking about a task requiring of those set to do it specific experience and skill of diagnosis, in order that absolutely trustworthy data may be obtained. The ultimate value of the social statistics under discussion is as a guide to progressive action. But for the purpose of serving as such, they must represent the truth and not merely a half baked and perhaps erroneous opinion. There is nothing more harmful or harder to overtake than the statistical lie.

It is so very simple to formulate questions which one should like to have answered through the medium of some government bureau whose business it is to collect statistics. Even those from whom one should expect greater discernment sometimes betray a curious ignorance in regard to what it is possible to accomplish. No more striking example of this has come to notice than a recently published summary of the work cut out for the proposed Federal children's bureau. According to this statement such a bureau should "furnish trustworthy current data" about the number of blind children in the United States, the causes of their blindness, and general condition; the number of subnormal children, prop-

erly classified; the number of fatherless children, with differentiation as to the percentage of orphanage due to tuberculosis, industrial accidents, etc.; annual statistics of the illiteracy of children; crime against children, child labor, juvenile courts, etc. And finally statistics of mortality among children, how many die and from what causes, and statistics of births each year. An admirable program! It has but one drawback. To carry it out would necessitate nothing less than a current census of the population of the United States, the continuous employment of an army of skilled investigators to be counted not by hundreds but by thousands and an annual outlay of several million dollars. Unfortunately, social investigations depend upon something more than the establishment of a governmental agency plentifully endowed with authority and given a liberal appropriation.

Do not misunderstand the purpose of these remarks. Not for a moment is it contended that we should stick to beaten paths, much less that the supply of information provided by the Bureau of the Census concerning our special problems is all-sufficient. Far from it. We have merely endeavored to state clearly the inevitable limitations imposed upon this office during the period of a general census. At other times the bureau should be empowered to enlarge the scope of its investigations by collecting statistics relative to the dependent, defective and delinquent classes outside of institutions. It should be authorized to confine inquiries to selected areas when the nature of the investigation and the necessity of employing intensive methods forbid sweeping the whole country for facts.

Mention has been made of some conditions we need to be informed about. Brief reference shall be made for purposes of illustration to one other, namely, that of blindness. The present census act does not provide for a separate enumeration of the blind in 1910, except that their names are to be secured. Repeated experience has shown that competent facts about the blind cannot be obtained by the ordinary population enumerator; not even to the extent of ascertaining their numerical proportions. Bare knowledge of the number of the blind avails little unless supplemented by

facts that may serve, first, to ameliorate their economic conditions, and, secondly, to instigate measures for the prevention of blindness. To supply this knowledge is the business of the trained investigator. He must employ intensive methods; the field should at the outset be limited to states where the results of the investigation are likely to be translated into action. It is useless to go on multiplying statistics purely for academic purposes. They should be linked up to practical endeavor and so fashioned that they supply the needs of the intelligent worker.

What may be done to meet the requests for knowledge concerning the problems within our particular domain through the Bureau of the Census depends not only upon its own initiative. Ordinarily such a governmental agency cannot undertake new investigations except in response to definite demands which must gain expression in appropriate congressional legislation. The members of this Conference must voice their demands in a practical way if they expect them to be heeded.

And do not let us forget that whether it be a question of a new and untried investigation or a further report on an old subject, it does not lie wholly with the official agency what kind of work is turned out. For the treatment of the material it alone is responsible; but the extent of the available material and its quality are conditioned by the comprehensiveness and intelligence with which the primary facts are recorded. In other words, whosoever is concerned in an official capacity, whether paid or unpaid, with the dependent, defective and delinquent classes, especially those in institutions, shares in some degree responsibility for the condition of the material from which official statistics are made.

Since its inception our committee has endeavored to inculcate this doctrine, not primarily for the purpose of helping out census reports, but in order that the worker may gain a better perspective of his own activities and thereby become more efficient. We are still at the beginning. So far we have done little more than scratch the surface of a huge field. Yet some progress has been made, and there is warrant for the belief that it will be reflected in the reports of the next census.

INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE

BY LEE K. FRANKEL, MANAGER INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT, METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY OF NEW YORK

It is not the purpose of this paper to present the subject of Industrial insurance at any length from either the statistical or from the controversial standpoint. I desire rather to present certain phases of Industrial insurance which bear pertinently upon the social problems, which are in the province of this Conference.

After all has been said, Industrial insurance may still be termed an experiment. Its beginnings in England date back a little more than half a century. In the United States the experiment has been tried for a little over twenty-five years. Its growth in that time has been phenomenal. On January 1, 1909, the seventeen companies writing this form of insurance had twenty millions of policies in force, with insurance of over two billion, six hundred million dollars. Undertaken originally by men who put their fortunes at stake to develop this idea, Industrial insurance today is practically synonymous with protection for the working classes. This form of saving and protection has been introduced into nearly every state in the Union and affects all classes of wage-earners, irrespective of occupation, nationality, or earning capacity.

Generally speaking, it may be said that one-fifth of the entire population of the United States carries Industrial policies. Nor have the activities of Industrial insurance companies been confined to male adults. Women and children are insured equally with men. Fundamentally, Industrial insurance differs from Ordinary, Old Line Level Premium insurance, in that the amount of insurance is adjusted to a unit premium, and that the premiums, instead of being payable annually, semiannually, quarterly or monthly, are payable weekly. It is this last fact which brings Industrial insurance into a close alliance with the work of social organizations in general and is the particular point which I desire to develop in this paper.

In the experiment which has been made in the United States during the past twenty-five years, Industrial insurance, by reason of its varied evolution, has been the constant subject, on the one side of praise and on the other side of criticism. In the last analysis it would probably be shown that the criticism has outweighed the praise. To a certain extent, this is inherent in the very nature of the undertaking. The experiment being a doubtful one, the originators and projectors of this form of insurance, to carry out the thought of giving protection to workmen which should be beyond the bounds of insecurity, and to be able to meet all contracts as they matured, were perforce required, owing to the lack of experience, to make premium payments sufficiently large so that policyholders could be guaranteed the protection provided for in the contract. With the knowledge which was gained from year to year, particularly along the line of determining the mortality of the industrial population and with the more careful systematization of the work, it has been found possible by Industrial insurance companies to gradually increase benefits and to reduce premium charges.

This is no time to go into any lengthy discussion of this subject. The student who wishes more intimate acquaintance with this phase of the situation can readily become acquainted with the number of concessions which have been made by Industrial insurance companies in the past twenty-five years, not only in increasing benefits and in reducing premiums, but in the greater liberality of the contract itself. I need mention here only such pertinent facts as the modification of the incontestability clause, the provision permitting change of residence to certain sections of the country which formerly were in the excluded zone, the granting of paid-up policy values and surrender values which formerly were not allowed by Industrial companies, the granting of bonuses not called for in the policy contract, and privileges of various kinds which, while apparently small so far as the individual is concerned, involved the payment of millions on the part of the company.

Industrial insurance has been defined on the one hand as a scheme of saving and of insurance, which in its nature is

essentially vicious. Many good-meaning people have questioned whether the workman should be encouraged to invest his savings in this form of protection. On the other hand, only recently a writer on the subject of Industrial insurance, in trying to find an analogy for this form of protection, opens his article with a quotation from the powerful play, "The Servant in the House," in which one of the actors asks: "In God's name, who are you?" and the response comes: "In God's name, your brother." After describing somewhat at length the history and development of Industrial insurance, the writer closes his article by again referring to the play and by giving the reply as voicing his opinion of Industrial insurance: "A brother of the brotherhood of man, with faults and virtues, with strength and weakness, but withal a brother serving and wanting to serve." I take it that the writer has condensed and crystallized in this phrase what the thoughtful man must conceive to be the function of the Industrial insurance company and of Industrial insurance in general. That it has its faults and shortcomings, no one can gainsay. Its weaknesses are most apparent to those who are engaged in its development. It has had in the course of its history its unwise, if not its wicked, representatives. For this reason, to use another simile, the chain has been as strong as its weakest link, and the opinion which has frequently been held of Industrial insurance has resulted from the misconduct and the mismanagement of a few faithless teachers, rather than from any inherent evil in the institution itself.

Whatever may be said of Industrial insurance it cannot be denied that in no other form can a workman make provision against the risk of death and obtain ample assurance of such protection as through this medium. No legitimate claim that has been made on an Industrial insurance company has ever remained unpaid. It is required by law to maintain adequate reserves based upon the mortality of the class. It offers to the workman the opportunity of making provision for his widow and children by easy weekly payments. For this, as for practically everything else which the workman buys at retail, he is required to pay the cost. For years the Industrial insurance companies have labored to devise ways and means

whereby this cost of collection, as it is called, could be saved to the insured. Parenthetically, it may be stated that on the basis of cost the essential difference between Ordinary insurance and Industrial insurance, outside of the fact that the latter must of necessity be based on a higher mortality table, is exclusively in this one factor—namely, the cost of the collection of the premium. Today the average Ordinary insurance company has management expenses of approximately 20 per cent. of the premium receipts. A few companies have succeeded in lowering this figure, owing to the fact that their great size permits of a lower per capita rate of administration. The difference between the average cost of management of these companies and of the Industrial companies is almost exactly the amount that must be expended by the Industrial company in the payment of its agents for the weekly collection of premiums. No system has yet been devised, either here or in Europe, that has taken the place of this weekly collection and has managed to reach large masses of the insurable public. All efforts that have been made in this direction, either through governmental agencies, as in England, where the Postoffice Department was placed at the disposal of the working classes, or through the Savings Bank plan, as in Massachusetts, have been failures, in that they have reached only a very limited number of individuals. Except through the compulsion of the law, as in Germany, no system, I repeat, has been devised anywhere, under which the Industrial population can be induced to avail themselves of the benefits of insurance other than the persistent solicitation of the insurance agent. The representatives of France and Italy at the International Congress on Workingmen's Insurance, held in Rome in 1908, deplored the fact that in spite of all the efforts which their governments had made, and the inducements which they presented in the way of subsidies, only a comparatively small part of the Industrial population had availed itself of the opportunities offered. Even under the Massachusetts Savings Bank Insurance plan, which forbids the use of canvasser or collector, and which the state subsidizes, it has been found necessary for private enterprise to engage agents to develop the scheme.

During the past winter, in the hope of giving cheaper insurance to workingmen, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company of New York introduced a bill into various legislatures which has since become known in insurance circles as the "group" insurance bill. Under this bill, any Industrial insurance company was permitted to make special rates to labor unions, lodges, benefit societies or similar organizations, or employes of a single employer, who, through their secretary or other officer, or employer, would undertake to take out insurance in an aggregate of not less than one hundred members and pay their premiums directly to the insurance company through such officer or employer. Under the anti-discrimination clauses in the insurance laws of certain states, an insurance company is forbidden to issue policies at different rates to different persons of the same class, even though expense incurred with some is saved with others. The company desired to secure the necessary legislation permitting it to co-operate with groups of individuals, either in organizations of their own or in connection with their employers, whereby the benefits of insurance might accrue to them to a greater extent than is feasible or possible now. The bill has become law in the states of Maine, New Jersey and Minnesota. In New York the bill was vetoed by the governor by reason of the fact that it had been amended in committee to include policies written on the monthly payment plan. In Illinois and in Wisconsin the bill aroused the opposition of representatives of the fraternal orders. It is problematical whether, even with this opportunity offered to workingmen, advantage will be taken of it to any considerable extent.

Of particular interest in this connection is the experiment which was made in Denmark in the direction of giving cheaper insurance to workingmen. Some few years ago, a new insurance company was organized in that country, the stock of the company being largely held by the labor unions. This company was started in the belief that the members of the labor organizations would personally interest themselves in obtaining policyholders, and that through the collection systems, which might be instituted in the labor unions, a material reduction in the cost of insurance would be provided. The

new organization began very auspiciously with a comparatively low management cost. Gradually, it was discovered that the interest of the unions waned, and it became necessary to employ paid agents not only to secure new policyholders but to collect the premiums of the old ones. The last annual report of this company shows a management cost practically as high as that of private stock companies in Denmark which write Industrial insurance.

It is axiomatic among the insurance fraternity that even the individual of a much higher social stratum, who applies directly to the insurance company for insurance protection, is to be looked at with suspicion in the belief that he makes this application voluntarily, knowing that he is in an impaired state of health. With all the education along insurance lines that has taken place in the United States, these many years, and in other countries as well, individuals in higher strata of society have not been educated up to the standpoint of voluntarily seeking insurance. From the psychologic standpoint there are distinct reasons for this and they need not be discussed here. The point which I wish to bring out is the fact that until the present no satisfactory method has been devised which will permit offering insurance to wage-earners and to the great body of workingmen, and will insure the continuance of the insurance, that does not require a constant notification to the policyholder and a constant reminder in the shape of a visit to his home so that the premium may be collected. To what extent this must be carried is indicated by the statement of an officer of a large Industrial company in England, that if the agent of the company reaches the policyholder more than half an hour after he arrives home with his weekly wages there was very little likelihood of the agent being able to obtain the premium. In other words, the sense of frugality, of thrift and of providence was so slightly developed among their policyholders, that the weekly income was utilized for every other purpose than protection.

Let this be as it may. Arguments may be cited that this policyholder needed everything he earned and had nothing left over, either for saving or protection. There is no doubt that this is true in many instances. It in nowise cancels the neces-

sity for such an individual being insured. All that it proves is the insufficiency of earnings and the impossibility on these earnings to preserve a proper standard of living, which, all of you will agree, should include protection against the risks which workmen ordinarily meet.

On the assumption, therefore, that for the present at least it is necessary to continue the system of Industrial insurance, and that it is obligatory to have so-called agents collect premiums by house to house visitation, the thought arises, cannot this unique piece of machinery be utilized for other purposes than the mere writing of insurance and the collection of the premiums thereon? It is estimated that there are approximately over twenty thousand agents in the United States who are weekly visiting fifteen million policyholders. It can be assumed that these fifteen million individuals represent at the least five million families. The mere fact that the visit is in most instances a weekly one, places the agent in a peculiar relationship to the family. He is called upon for advice. Frequently, he is counselor and friend. He obtains intimate knowledge of family conditions which it is impossible for almost any other kind of a visitor to obtain. The family's finances, its social status, its size, its difficulties, its joys and its sorrows are soon matters of common knowledge to the agent. His visits, as a rule, are among a class of the population of whom a large part is industrious and frugal, but among whom also are many who require constant stimulation and incentive in providence and in thrift. The agent is usually the first one who is called in when death occurs, and it is he who sees to it that the policy claims are promptly paid, so that the burial, the impelling motive, as a rule, for insurance, is a decent one and that the policyholder shall not be put into a pauper's grave.

Enough has been said to indicate that even unconsciously and without any distinct attempt in this direction, the Industrial insurance agent has been in a limited way a social worker. He has without any conscious attempt on his part helped to influence the families whom he visits for their betterment. He has done that for pay which all of our social workers, either in charity organization societies, schools, social

settlements or as friendly visitors, have done, either for pay or voluntarily, depending upon their financial ability to engage in work of this kind as a paid or as a volunteer visitor. Fundamentally, their functions are the same. Both are, I repeat, social workers. For both there are unlimited possibilities of development in their respective fields.

Can the Industrial agent be made more effective even than he has been heretofore? Can he be made a distinct influence in the community for the uplifting of the families with whom he comes into constant contact, and finally, can his services be made of sufficient value to the policyholder, so that the latter may feel, and the community at large may realize, that the insured is obtaining and receiving distinct benefits and full value for the price which he has to pay? The main difference, as I see it, between the insurance agent as a social worker and the paid agent of a charitable society, the public school teacher or the settlement visitor, lies in the fact that the former is paid from the direct contributions of the working classes. In the latter case, the contributions, while indirect, and while they presumably come from philanthropic individuals in the community or from the public treasury, nevertheless in the last analysis come out of the purses of workingmen. Whether they pay the contributions in the form of insurance premiums or whether they pay them in taxes, in higher rent, in higher cost of the necessities of life, or in insufficient earnings, is immaterial. The fact remains that in either event they are paying their share. The fundamental point at issue is whether the wage-earner obtains from either or any of these social agencies ample return from the investment which he directly or indirectly makes.

The relation of the Industrial insurance agent to the policyholder is a peculiar one. There is no thought of patronage nor of condescension. The agent has nothing to offer which may be mistaken for charity, nothing that has any thought of a gift or dole or alms. The agent offers something which has a distinct value to the prospective policyholder, who may refuse it or accept it. Assuming that he takes the latter course, what may the agent do in addition to the purely formal task of bringing the value of insurance to the notice of the insured

and of subsequently seeing to it that the insurance is kept in force? I take it that in view of this very peculiar relationship the Industrial insurance agent has the most admirable opportunities for social service among his particular constituency.

If the agent could do no more than to educate the working classes to the desirability of lack of extravagance and the absence of show and pomp in the burial of their near and dear ones, he would to a large extent have accomplished his object. It is, and has been, a function of the agent, at least in some insurance companies, to see to it that the policyholder is guarded against excessive charges for funerals. The agent may do much more than this, however. He sees the family not only when death has entered the home, but likewise when sickness has laid any of its members prostrate. For this reason he should be a man of sufficient education and breadth of view and with sufficient humanitarian instincts to see to it that this stricken member obtains requisite medical treatment. He should have a knowledge of existing agencies where the individual may obtain proper medical treatment, so that disease which at first is acute may not become chronic. All things which are today done by social workers in their contact with families may and should be done by the Industrial insurance agent, particularly as policyholders represent not only men, but women and children as well.

It should be part of an agent's duty to acquaint himself with the ordinary laws and rules of sanitation and hygiene, to advise the family when they are living under unsanitary conditions and in unsanitary homes, to help the wage-earner to secure employment should he be unfortunate enough to have no work, to advise the mother how to obtain proper treatment and care for her child and in particular for her infant, to find the policyholder who has become tuberculous or who has been injured or who may be a cripple, to assist in every way possible not only in the cure but in the prevention of disease. I need not enlarge upon this phase of what the agent may do. It can be summarized in the thought which actuates this Conference—namely, that of being of greatest service to those who unfortunately, because of their surroundings and

their inheritance, are unable properly to care for themselves. Whether the duties of the social worker are along the lines of instruction in civic duty, in the obtaining of proper schooling facilities, in the care of the sick, or, even as a last resort, in finding material relief for unfortunates who fall by the way in the economic struggle, there is no single phase of work which might not satisfactorily and rightfully be undertaken by the agent of the Industrial insurance company.

If I may for the moment be permitted a personal note, I wish to say that it is this thought which underlies the policy of the company with which I am associated, in the belief that through co-operation more can be effected than by single-handed action. We recently announced to social agencies of all kinds, including charity organization societies, settlement workers, boards of health and anti-tuberculosis movements, the willingness on the part of the company to place its agents at the disposal of these societies, either for dissemination of literature or in any other manner in which its machinery can be availed of. I mention the matter here for the reason that we desire to repeat this offer, particularly to those who are members of the Conference, in the hope that this form of co-operation can be materially extended. As a practical measure, the company has undertaken and begun an extensive campaign in the direction of the eradication of tuberculosis among its policyholders. It has prepared a concise pamphlet on this subject, and will request its policyholders, who may be or who may have become tubercular, to correspond with the home office, so that they may be put in touch with agencies in their respective communities (sanatoria, hospitals, dispensaries, day camps, etc.) where they may obtain proper treatment.

If this scheme is to become effective, I need hardly say that we must count upon the most hearty co-operation of the members of the Conference, either individually or through their associations, engaged in the war against tuberculosis.

It is manifestly impossible for an insurance company to undertake alone the care of its tuberculous policyholders, nor should it be asked to do so as a matter of wise public policy. A policyholder is not only a policyholder but a citizen as well, and as such he is entitled to the provisions which are

made by municipal or other authorities, public or private, for the cure and prevention of consumption. An insurance company may prepare to do its share along the lines which it may legally follow. It can only be successful in reducing mortality from tuberculosis when it is working in unison and in harmony with all other agencies engaged in the same ennobling occupation.

The lowering of a mortality rate means much to the insurance company, in that it would have fewer death claims to pay. Eighteen per cent. of the death claims at present paid by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company are due to tuberculosis. Out of 88,542 deaths in this particular company in 1906, 18.3 per cent. were due to tuberculosis; 15.82 per cent. to other respiratory diseases. Mortality at certain ages is remarkable. I cite one instance only. Of all deaths between the ages of twenty and twenty-four (5,677), 45.74 per cent. were due to tuberculosis and 8.66 per cent. to other respiratory diseases. While, as I say, a lowering of the death rate means much to the company, it means much more to the policyholder. In the first place, it means an extension of life, for the loss of which his family is by no means compensated by the policy which he may carry. In the second place, it means that the company, while it pays fewer claims, will be able to allow larger benefits; in other words, cheapen the cost of the insurance to the working classes.

To this end it would appear that an insurance company may go to even further limits. For example, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has under consideration the organization of a nursing service, and if it is found feasible, a medical service, not only for its tubercular but for all its bedridden policyholders. If it is permitted to do so by law, it contemplates the establishment of a sanatorium for the treatment of tuberculous diseases. Along purely educational lines, it purposes to distribute literature so that its policyholders may receive instruction in the care of the body and in the preservation of health. It will institute a concerted campaign to lower infant mortality by giving its policyholders accurate information and the personal assistance of its agency staff in securing efficient medical treatment for infants during the summer

months. All this is in line with the social program which the company has laid down for itself.

Summarized, it may be confidently said that all the criticisms which have been leveled against Industrial insurance, aside from a few sporadic instances of inefficiency, may be crystallized into the one general criticism of excessive cost to the policyholder.

The old contention that child insurance led to infanticide has been definitely laid. The legislatures of practically all states and in all countries that have considered the subject by their action have definitely proven that there was no foundation to the claim. Probably no better refutation can be cited than the action taken at the meeting of the National Fraternal Congress last year, when a report of a committee advocating the introduction of child insurance into the fraternal orders was unanimously accepted by the Congress.

If, therefore, today the sole criticism which can be brought against Industrial insurance is that of cost, may it not be argued that even this criticism will be overcome when the public at large realizes the service which the Industrial insurance company renders to its policyholders? After all, service is not always calculable in dollars and cents. If in addition to the protection which the Industrial insurance company throws around its policyholders, a protection which under the law is guarded and which is based on scientific principles, it renders the additional service of making its agents friends and counselors and guides and teachers to its policyholders, can it not be said that Industrial insurance, thus developed, is successfully fulfilling its mission and that the workman is receiving benefits, either financial, educational or moral, which fully compensate him for the outlay which he may make?

Even as it is, well-known actuaries and students of the subject have always contended that if the service which is given by the Industrial insurance company is actually required, the cost is not too high. If this is true today, how much more aptly may it be said when Industrial insurance reaches the high plane of making its advocates and its representatives definite agencies for social service and for social helpfulness!

DISCUSSION ON MR. FRANKEL'S PAPER

Question—Does Mr. Frankel mean to convey the impression that it is impossible to make insurance voluntary, and so do away with the solicitors? The savings bank insurance plan of Massachusetts is only one year old, although the theory on which it is established is not new. The savings bank theory is a century old in Massachusetts, and it is that savings protection is not properly the object of anybody's private gain, it is a public function. The savings banks in Massachusetts for over a century have been public, not private corporations, nobody being permitted to profit by their operation. Whether or not eventually this voluntary plan will work without agents is not so important as the fact that we are recognizing that insurance is a public, not a private matter. The entrance of a man like Dr. Frankel into the insurance field is about as revolutionary a thing as was the Armstrong investigation.

Question—I am thoroughly in accord with the speaker, except that I want to ask if in insuring children there is not a tendency on the part of the parents to neglect those children in order to get the insurance money?

Mr. Frankel—No subject has been so carefully studied in the United States and in Europe as this. There is practically no state in the Union that has not at some time taken action upon it, and no state, except Colorado, has not, definitely, permitted child insurance, after careful investigation. The most recent action was taken last summer at a meeting of the National Fraternal Congress representing a large number of the fraternal orders of the United States. There a committee, after careful inquiry, recommended to the constituent societies the adoption of child insurance. There is no evidence, either here or in England, of any case of child neglect as the result of insurance. As a matter of fact, mortality among children insured in the Metropolitan Company is lower than among children in the ordinary population.

Mr. Sanborn—The insurance companies are doing what in my opinion they ought to have done forty years ago. In Massachusetts for many years they steadily refused to recognize those provisions of our law which protect the insured. They would not recognize the principle that life insurance is a public and not a private matter; and that the business of the trustees of a life insurance company is to protect the general community, not to enrich themselves. They have learned it now by legislation in New York State. I hope they have entered that reformatory which is maintained for the public good in America, and will continue their course as reformed criminals.

Mr. William L. Nichols—Those of us from New York are glad that Dr. Frankel has entered the insurance business, recognizing the good effect it is having. At the same time he is not able, apparently, to control his own agents so that they shall tell the truth. They misrepresent things, and the effect is that many poor women are influenced to overstrain themselves in insuring the lives of their children. An agent whose livelihood depends on the number of cases which he insures, is apt to work on a woman's feelings by saying, "Would you be willing for your child to be buried in a pauper grave?" And so a large percentage of people have children insured, and then forfeit their policies after they have paid as long as they can. While I do not mean to say that these people wilfully neglect their children or want them to die for the insurance, they practically neglect them because the insurance has to be paid, and bread and milk have to be

cut down and take the second place. It seems to me that child insurance on the part of a money-making company ought to be stopped and absolutely prohibited. What possible reason is there for it other than the burial of a child? I have said again and again to poor people: "If I had seen you before the agent did I would have guaranteed that if your child died it would be properly buried." I have found cases where, upon the death of a child, the undertaker was in possession of the policy even before death occurred. The agents stimulate these people to have a splendid funeral. I claim that any method by which the agents make money out of child insurance is unfortunate; and any method by which little children are insured is positively iniquitous and should be prohibited.

Mr. Sulzberger of New York—I think we should concern ourselves with the question of burial reform and begin with the question in the stratum of society in which we ourselves live. So long as extravagant funerals are in vogue you cannot expect the poor man and woman will do less for their dead than they are able in their station. If we will set the example of a decent burial, which means no indecent display, the desire for child insurance will speedily disappear.

Mr. Brackett—Are these insurance agents paid salaries or is their compensation on the fee system?

Question—Do insurance companies ever refuse to pay the insurance when it can be proved by charity workers that the child has been neglected by the parents in order to pay the policy, that the parents might get the insurance?

Mr. Weber—What proportion of the premium that the company receives is paid for actual insurance?

Question—What qualifications have these collectors or agents that would fit them to render the social service which their intimate knowledge of the condition of the families would enable them to render, if they had the fitness?

Question—Has this insurance company made any arrangements to report to the Tuberculosis Society the individual cases coming to their attention? And would they give such information as is valuable?

Mr. Frankel—I confess my inability to answer all these questions satisfactorily in the five minutes allotted to me. Each one is worthy of very careful consideration. I hope the time will come when we can carry out the German plan of seeing to it that every man, woman and child is protected. The death of a child to a wage earner is as serious a drain on his purse as is the death of an adult. If a method can be devised for the burial of a poor man's child that does not include the acceptance of charity, then the day may come when child insurance will be unnecessary. But so long as it requires the charity agent to enter the home and to offer assistance in the burial as a charity, so long it will be necessary to insure these children as well as adults, in order to preserve the self-respect of the family.

Agents are engaged on a salary basis, to which there is added a commission. The average pay under that system is between fifteen and eighteen dollars a week. An agent who has been in the service many years may make as much as twenty-two dollars. This company is a stock company on a unique system. It pays dividends on the stock, but the stockholders may receive exactly $140,000 per annum and no more. It is limited by its own charter to that amount. Every dollar above that, except what is needed for expenses, goes to the policyholders, either in the shape of a reserve, which must be put up by law, or in the shape of surplus, the larger part of which is returned to policyholders in voluntary bonuses. All the profits must

be used for the benefit of the policyholders outside of the actual stock dividend. The whole question narrows down to this—how cheaply can the business be conducted? On your ordinary policy you are paying on an average of twenty per cent. on every premium for expenses. If you can do away with the cost of collection, you can reduce the cost of insurance.

I have studied the matter carefully, and I see no way at the present time of reaching the masses other than by a system of compulsion or through the agent. The sense of thrift in many individuals is so slight that even with an agency system it is difficult to keep up the insurance.

In answer to the question whether or not the company pays if a child is neglected, I should say that where it had been proved that the neglect had been deliberate for the sake of getting the insurance, the company would refuse to pay.

So far as the qualifications of our agents are concerned, I would suggest that ten years ago we had few trained workers in our social work. The point I raise is that the agent can be trained to become a social worker, and if he is not of the right caliber at the present time, we will get the right kind, whether man or woman. Any man in the insurance business ought to be a social worker and have the social sense we desire and demand on the part of social workers today.

As to whether we are reporting tuberculosis patients and giving out information, this propaganda is directed toward that. We hope to get in touch with our tuberculous policyholders, and we believe arrangements can be made so knowledge of them will be brought to the anti-tuberculosis organizations and the proper treatment accorded.

STATISTICS RELATING TO CHILDREN

BY HOMER FOLKS, SECRETARY OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK

Looking at this matter first from the national point of view, it is interesting to observe that at the White House conference on the care of children, which met last January, one of the first things to be put on record was the fact that nobody knows at this time how many of these neglected, delinquent and defective children there are in the United States. Had we met a few years sooner, we would have been compelled to say that no one knew at that time how many were being cared for in institutions. It is due largely to the persistent efforts of the chairman of this committee, Mr. Koren, that we have had during the past four years the benefit of a compilation of the number of destitute children in institutions. The difference between

those in institutions and those boarded out in families and placed out in families is a vital one so far as the individual child is concerned, but is not the kind of difference which should result in our having full statistical information concerning the one class and none at all concerning the other. It surely is as important to know how many children are cared for in families and what becomes of them as to have that knowledge concerning those in institutions. The Children's Friend Society of Boston two years ago, when it had an institution, would be included in the enumeration of destitute children cared for. But now that its children are placed in families, it would not be so included. I asked Mr. Koren as to whether the next enumeration of benevolent institutions might not use the institution in a somewhat larger sense. Mr. Koren confessed to me that what seemed a very desirable and possibly small thing is probably impracticable at present.

Census statistics, as we use the term ordinarily, are compiled from data pertaining to the individual, collected at the time of the decennial census. It seems as though we might have a census of destitute and other classes of children, based on a compilation made from the individual records taken by the government in connection with the regular census. We would then know the total number of children in the United States from information taken by the census enumerator, and know how many of them were living in their own homes, how many boarding out in other families, how many in other families by adoption, or in free homes, and how many were in institutions. Mr. Koren leads me to believe that this is impracticable and impossible for some time; that it will be impossible to train an army of enumerators so that they would be able to get information and appreciate the difference between the adopted home and the boarding home and the institution. So for some time to come our information in regard to these classes of children will not be, in the strictest sense of the term, what is ordinarily suggested to us by census enumeration. It will be rather a compilation of the information supplied by or secured from individual institutions, as the report of 1904 is a compilation of returns made by benevolent institutions. It should be practicable in the compilation of statistics of insti-

tutions to include, so far as children are concerned, societies, agencies, and institutions such as care for children, in part or in whole, in families as well as in institutions, so that we may know how many children altogether are supported by charitable funds. That will be a matter for some time in the future.

Turning now to the states, because we have census material from state as well as from national authorities, if any of you have made a study of the different methods of caring for children, you must have been struck by the fact that it is not possible at this time to secure from state authorities anything like uniform or comprehensive statistics in regard to the care of dependent children. Some are cared for by the state, some by county or municipal authorities, and many by private institutions having state or local aid, and some by private charities. There is one state which gives complete information as to the number of children in all these classes of institutions. In many states there are State Boards of Charities, and they give a certain range of information. The reports of the state institutions of Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and of the State Board of Charity of Massachusetts, so far as state children are concerned, may be regarded as models of completeness extending over a series of years. But there is lacking the information covering the same period which would enable one to compare the state work with the local work and also with the private work. The statistics in regard to children in the State of New York are by far the most detailed and elaborate of those published by any state. Considering that we have a highly decentralized system there, they are exceptionally complete. I confess to not being enough of an expert to make the best use of the wide variety of information which those statistics contain. They are incomplete, from one point of view, because of the fact that a few years ago, by decision of the Court of Appeals, the institutions not receiving public money were relieved from the requirement of reporting to and being inspected by the State Board of Charities. Looking over a series of years they are defective in that at a certain time there is a dropping out of the institutions not receiving public money. I wish very much we had in connection with this Conference a conference of State Boards

of Charities, for the purpose of arriving at a very simple but uniform schedule of statistics in relation to children which each state would endeavor to secure, so we might compare the states one with another, and compile the totals for the country at large.

The thing we most need to know as individual workers in the cause of charity and in behalf of children, and the thing which the state and the national authorities must rely upon in the absence of an enumeration, is the accuracy of our own statistics, of our own little piece of work. It is far more important that you and I should know definitely just what we are doing, than it is that we should be able to handle with more or less accuracy the figures dealing with the state as a whole, or the nation. Most of us assume, and I think quite erroneously, that we know what we are doing. It is surprising how easy it is in dealing with even thirty or forty children, to fall into an entirely erroneous conception as to where they came from; what proportion came for one cause, and what proportion for another; what the average of their stay with us is, and what becomes of them after they leave our care.

For the Paris Exposition I was asked to prepare certain exhibits in regard to reformatory institutions. I asked a number of the most progressive institutions to make exhibits including some indication of what happened to the boys and girls after leaving the institution, up to the ages of eighteen or twenty-one. There was practically none that could give that information in a comprehensive and convincing way. Some could give estimates. One institution made that a starting point from which records should be kept, resulting in statistics that mean a great deal. I refer with great satisfaction to the Lyman School for Boys, and commend that institution as one whose statistics show an earnest effort and great pains to find out what all the facts were.

The root of the difficulty is our lack of complete knowledge of the individual. If our knowledge of the individual is insufficient, our statistics will be grossly incomplete and misleading, and when compiled with those of the state and the country at large, will be absolutely worthless. The underlying necessity is to open our eyes, to throw away our prejudices, to look the

individual child squarely in the face and to know him and to care supremely about him. If we do that we shall put on record our knowledge of that child, and his development under our care. From that we shall be able to make up our statistics in a way that will give them definite meaning, that will tell the unpleasant as well as the pleasant facts; and from that our State Boards of Charities can make up a report which will mean a great deal to Mr. Koren.

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF

BY THOS. J. RILEY, PH. D., DIRECTOR ST. LOUIS SCHOOL OF SOCIAL ECONOMY, PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

The problems of charity are so unlike in the great cities, the towns and the country places, that if any headway is to be made in studying such a large subject as Public Outdoor Relief it must be broken up into smaller parts. Indeed, it may be that the giving of temporary relief from public funds to persons in their own homes should be approved for thinly settled rural communities, but disapproved for densely populated urban places.

As long ago as 1881 Mr. Seth Low, at the conclusion of his noteworthy address on this subject before the National Conference of Charities and Correction, said that "outdoor relief in the United States, as elsewhere, tends inevitably and surely to increase pauperism; that in towns and cities it is not needed; that often in villages it can be dispensed with. In thinly settled sections its evils are at the lowest ebb, while its benefits are at the same time the greatest. If coupled with the conditions of work in return for relief, which in the country ought to be easy of accomplishment, outdoor relief in the country would probably not be open to very serious objection." But even this provisional approval by Mr. Low has been questioned. Only two years ago the correspondent of this Conference from the State of North Carolina, writing of outdoor relief, said:

"I believe that much of the outdoor relief might be cut off with advantage to the poor. Just enough is given to weaken self-respect and encourage dependence. It also diverts funds from the proper building up of the county homes. On the surface it appears cheaper because the per capita cost is less than in the homes, but it is false economy because so many more persons apply for aid, and because persons who might retain their position by slight aid through private agencies in the time of need are pauperized."

If I have read the reports of these Conferences correctly the climax of the papers and discussions on the giving of outdoor relief in the large cities from municipal funds was reached some sixteen or seventeen years ago. If I have not misread the conclusions of this great national body of experts, and if I am not mistaken as to the practice of nearly all the great cities of our country, it is the accepted conclusion that large cities should not give public outdoor relief.

But it does not follow from this that such relief should not be given in smaller cities, towns and country districts. Judging again from the proceedings of these Conferences and from a knowledge of the facts in the case, it is probably correct to say that although many smaller cities give public outdoor relief, the practice could be discontinued without suffering and with good results; and, although some would discontinue such relief in the villages and country places, as yet it must be given and it is not impossible that only good results may attend it.

Considering these things, I have limited this paper to the topic of public outdoor relief in rural communities, by which is meant relief from public funds to persons in their homes. It does not, according to this definition, include the support or partial support of public paupers in private institutions, nor does it include the placing out of children in private homes either by local or state boards. It follows from the general line of division between indoor and outdoor relief that our topic deals with temporary rather than with permanent relief, and yet it must be said that many persons whose relief must be included in such a topic are veritable pensioners on this public fund.

It is a little embarrassing to appear on the program of this Conference for the Committee on Statistics for a paper on the statistics of public outdoor relief, for there are almost no such statistics. The report of the Conference Committee on Outdoor Relief in 1905 declared that "in nothing more plainly than in the few and vague reports on outdoor relief is the lack of trustworthy statistics shown; * * * only a few of the states have any trustworthy figures about it." The report for 1908 repeated this conclusion in only a different form when it said: "The information afforded in the reports under this heading (outdoor relief) is scanty and shows that statistics upon the subject are non-existent in many if not most states." The correspondent for the State of Washington to the Conference of one year ago expresses what is probably true of almost every other state when he says: "It seemed impossible to get any statistics of any value." The result is, as expressed by the correspondent from Pennsylvania, that "No one knows anything about the tendency in the state."

There are some exceptions to this general statement as to the absence of all statistics; for example, in Indiana the records for the last dozen years have been practically complete on nearly all points for which statistics could be made, while in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Ohio, and perhaps New York, there appear to be reasonably complete and accurate records of such facts as the amount of money expended for this form of relief and the number of persons who received it.

The meagerness of statistics of public outdoor relief does not appear until one undertakes to collect information on the subject and reduce it to exact statements. A short time ago the writer undertook a study of county outdoor relief in Missouri, especially in counties that do not contain large cities. A little examination soon disclosed the fact that the county courts, which are the overseers of the poor in that state, make no competent record of this important part of their business, and that they make no reports on county charities as such, not even on the county almshouse. There are positively no records in that state, and consequently no reports which give any information concerning the county outdoor relief except as it is contained within, though not usually classified as a part of,

the statement of the annual expenditures of the county. Although there is a law that requires the county courts to file a copy of their annual statements with the state auditor, there is no penalty attached for its violation, and the result is that there is nowhere in the state a complete file of the expenditures of the counties from which anything like a careful statement could be made as to the amount of money expended for the outdoor relief of the poor in the state or as to the number who are assisted in this way.

The difficulties experienced in getting information in Missouri are not peculiar to the county system of administration. The difficulties are met with also in those states where the township is the unit of poor relief administration.

It may be interesting to note that those central and western states that trace their institutions chiefly to the New England colonies, in which the small community was the unit of local government, have generally adopted the township as the unit in the administration of poor relief; while those states that have copied after the South Atlantic colonies have adopted the larger unit, the county. It probably makes no difference, so far as the difficulty of getting adequate statistics is concerned, whether the county or the township is the unit for administering public outdoor relief.

So far as the State of Missouri is representative of the central western states, it may be declared unhesitatingly that there is almost no information to be had from the records of public overseers of the poor in the counties, especially in the rural sections.

It was hinted above that even where any records are kept and statistical reports made, they deal only with the amount of money expended and the number of persons aided. So far as the writer has been able to find out, with the single exception of Indiana, no state has an original-entry record that is competent to furnish any information as to the personnel of the county outdoor pauper population. And yet the most important question of any system or policy of relief is not how much or how little it costs, not how many or how few receive aid, but what does it do for those who share its funds?

So far as reports indicate anything, the chief interest that the public has had in county outdoor relief—if perchance it has had any interest—has been, "How much does it cost, and is the amount decreasing?" The chief ambition of the overseers of the poor—if they can be credited with any ambition in the case—seems to be to report less money expended for this purpose than during the preceding year. But the chief questions in any system of relief are not what does it cost? not how many are helped? but does it reach those who really need? and does it rehabilitate those whom it aids? An economy of dollars and cents is commendable, but the almost universal experience of charitable workers proves that giving relief in doles in an attempt to show a favorable balance in ledger does but perpetuate the poverty it tries to relieve.

There is an almost irresistible claim for approval by all except the very elect in any report on public outdoor relief which shows by figures that less money has been expended than formerly. It does not matter much whether more or fewer persons are aided by this decreased amount, the report is likely to be accepted as evidence of an improved administration of poor relief. Such a saving, however, may not mean better service to the poor or any prevention of the need of relief. It may indicate only the absence of favoritism, politics, or graft. Such is a decided gain in administration, but not necessarily any gain in the rehabilitation of the needy. There is still the question of the efficiency of relief which is plainly separable from that of lowering the expenditures. There is a false economy that amounts to parsimony and improvidence and there is a thrift in generosity that results in stability and prosperity.

It is probably true that under the system of administration that prevails in most places it is almost impossible for the overseers of public outdoor relief either to investigate the cases adequately before giving relief or to follow them up in order to find out the effects of the relief. When it was undertaken in Missouri to find out something about the personnel of the outdoor pauper population in the state, and to find out what became of the cases, there was not one single scratch of the pen to give any information on these questions. It was, therefore, necessary for the investigators to go to the original records of

the county courts, to take the names of the various beneficiaries, and to make personal visitation to them, their homes and neighborhoods. By such a system of personal investigation it was possible to find out what has become of the outdoor beneficiaries in a small number of selected cases.

It is very well known to the administrators of public outdoor relief that besides the occasional applicant there are large numbers of persons who are practically pensioners on the county. It is generally believed that it is cheaper to give these paupers partial support in their own homes than to commit them to the almshouse. There seems to be no thought as to whether or not these can be rehabilitated, and, indeed, in many cases they cannot be, for they are aged and defective people. The point is that there is no information as to the personnel and personal history of this great body of pensioners, and the still greater army of occasional applicants.

Unless the records of the overseers of the poor contain the name, residence and history of the beneficiary, together with the members of his immediate family and his relatives, as in the State of Indiana, it is impossible to determine to what extent the outdoor pauper population belongs to "families," "tribes," or "stocks." And even though the records for the outdoor poor might conceivably contain such information, unless the records of the almshouses, the county jails, police courts, and state institutions contain adequate data also, it is impossible for the most careful research to determine whether or not the public paupers may not belong to a few degenerate stocks in the population, such as the Jukes or the Ishmaelites. When the emphasis of the officials and the interest of the public center entirely upon an economy of dollars and cents, the degeneracy of the poor may remain undiscovered and will continue to be fostered by such ill-considered relief.

A question that must have arisen in the minds of those who have listened to what has been said about the absence of competent data is: Is the subject of enough importance to demand any considerable attention? while certainly to most of you must have occurred a second question: What should be done about it? I shall try briefly to answer these questions in order:

Is the subject of public outdoor relief of sufficient importance to call for further attention by this Conference and special attention by citizens, officials and overseers?

Aside from the question of the effect upon those who receive the public alms, there is the tremendous problem of administering these funds. There is no other form of relief in which there are such difficulties of administration and such evils in its abuse as in public outdoor relief.

The matter of chief concern is not the unit of administration, but the administration itself. The difficulties of administration were long ago pointed out with great force, and have recently been confirmed in many ways, but this topic is of such vital importance that a restatement may not be out of place. The English Royal Commission, reporting in 1834, declared that the difficulties of administration are such as to insure almost certain failure of a system of public outdoor relief, that there are difficulties which amount almost to impossibilities on the part of those who administer and award relief; difficulties of ascertaining whether any, and what, necessity for it exists, while the existence of positive motives in many cases on the part of those awarding relief causes them to grant it when unnecessary, or themselves to create the necessity.

In Cincinnati, in 1884, although general outdoor relief had been temporarily abolished, the city had six disbursers who received $600 a year for their services, which consisted in giving out during three months of the year a few bushels of coal; three of the six were saloonkeepers and ward politicians and they gave their favors according to their interest. The situation in Indiana before the reform period was characterized by the present distinguished president of this Conference, who was then the secretary of the Board of State Charities, as "A hodge-podge of loose business methods and official extravagance, in which the unfortunate and the impostor share alike, in which independence is broken down and pauperism and professional mendicancy are fostered, and in which the suffering and distressed are humiliated by association with the fraudulent in the public mind, in which the exigencies of party politics and the demands of personal favoritism may be satisfied without detection."

In Center township, Indiana, which contains the city of Indianapolis, the township trustee spent $90,000 a year for public outdoor relief in 1885-1886, but a new trustee found it possible to reduce this enormous sum to $8,000 four years later. A most careful analysis of the variations in the expenditures for public outdoor relief in Indiana shows conclusively that it is not a difference in the wealth of the townships or in the classes of people that inhabit them that makes the difference in the amount of poor relief given, or the proportion of the population that depend upon it, but that the difference is purely a matter of administration.

There can scarcely be any doubt that the question of public outdoor relief needs most careful study and continued discussion, if for no other reason than improvement in its administration. But this is not the only reason. According to accurate data in a few states, and estimates in others, there are enormous sums of money annually expended in public outdoor relief. Indiana spends $227,000; New Hampshire, $225,000; Ohio, $243,000; Missouri, $150,000, while Massachusetts, New York and Pennsylvania spend still larger amounts. When an ordinary rural county of the great central states spends from $1,000 to $3,000 per year for outdoor relief, it should be a matter of considerable importance to the people of that county how that money is expended, and of supreme importance to them as to the effects of such charity. When this county situation is repeated a hundred times in a commonwealth and the commonwealth multiplied by almost half a hundred, it is impossible to deny very great importance to this subject, even though the policy of the greatest cities seems to have been settled almost two decades ago. I challenge any man to defend any other conclusion, when he considers the amount of money expended, the possibilities of wise economy, and, above all, the certain degeneration of the poor through such ill-considered alms.

Turning now to the second question, asked a few moments ago, as to what should be done about it? I have but a few words to say.

Of course, we at once think of the United States Bureau of the Census. Can that bureau furnish the desired information

on public outdoor relief? It is but a matter of fact that the bureau has never collected such information.

Nothing has ever been tried in the way of getting statistics of public outdoor relief by the United States Census Bureau, with the single exception of the supplemental schedule No. 7 in the census of 1880, unless possibly there were some facts on this topic implied in the schedules returned at the earlier censuses. The Twelfth Census made no attempt to gather information on this point. Moreover, the recent director of the census has said that the information does not come within the scope of his bureau. That it has not been considered as falling within the scope of the census bureau is not a conclusive reason that it should not or could not be included, especially since the bureau has been made a permanent one and has, because of that fact, been able to successfully undertake several special investigations and has published several very valuable special reports.

If the census bureau can select information on the inmates of charitable institutions, even including the almshouses for which almost no records are kept, there does not seem to the writer to be any sufficient reason why it could not also gather data on public outdoor relief, provided the records of entry by the administering authorities were carefully kept. In other words, I see no intrinsic reason why the subject of public outdoor relief should not come within the scope of the United States Census Bureau. There may be some practical difficulties, such as incompetent records, in many places. But, granting sufficient importance to the subject, I see no reason why there might not be a "registration area" in poor relief statistics as there is now in vital statistics. It is, in my own opinion, a practical matter that could and should be worked out by the greatest statistical bureau of our government.

It should be noted, however, that such a governmental agency is not adapted to and would not at present be justified in trying to report on the personnel of the outdoor pauper population and of its relations to that of the almshouses, colonies for the feeble-minded, hospitals for the insane, jails, workhouses, reformatories and penitentiaries. Nor can such a bureau follow up the cases as does a charity organization society to furnish in-

formation as to what good or what ill follows the dribbling doles. In fact, there seems to me to be right here one of the greatest fields for service by voluntary agencies or private endowments that is open in the great field of social amelioration.

State Supervision and Administration

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY FRANK A. FETTER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, CHAIRMAN

The two words in the title, "supervision" and "administration," have been taken in this report not as synonyms, but as indicating two aspects and functions of state boards. By "administration" we understand the business management, the control, of institutions, so far as this is done by a board and not by the superintendent, the executive head of the institution. Perhaps the most essential administrative function of a board is the appointment of the superintendent. Every institution in this country has at least nominally an administrative board of one or more persons, sometimes an *ex officio* board consisting of regular state officers, sometimes appointed by the governor, with or without the advice of the senate; sometimes elected by the legislature, or by the people; sometimes partly appointive and partly *ex officio;* and sometimes selected by still other methods. The administrative board may have varying degrees of control, while more or less of administrative functions may be exercised by some other authority. Some measure of centralized administration may be exercised merely in the supervision of the financial affairs and in the purchase of supplies, the fixing of salaries, etc. With many variations in practice it is sometimes difficult to determine whether a board is to be classed as administrative or supervisory. The simplest type of administrative board is one responsible for the administration of but one institution. "State administration," as used in this report, however, is in the main concerned with the work of the central boards which control two or more institutions (and usually all those of a single species in a state) either general, covering all the charities, hospitals for insane, and penal institutions of a state, or confined to one or more of these groups of institutions.

By state supervision is meant the functions of boards generally described as advisory, including inspection, advice, recommendation, and criticism of the management, study of progressive methods in other communities, diffusion of information, the study and promotion of philanthropic legislation; but in any case not the responsibility of appointing the executive heads or other officers of the institutions. Some boards are administrative as regards certain institutions, as those of the state, and supervisory as regards others, as those of the county, of the city, or of voluntary organizations.

STATE ADMINISTRATION OF STATE INSTITUTIONS

As regards the field covered by the administrative board (board of control), there are fifteen possible variations, eight of which are found in practice, to say nothing of the many minor variations in details. The first type of the existing systems of administrative boards is where each state institution is under a separate board of managers. This is exemplified in Maine and in thirteen other states, one territory and one district. In at least five of these states it appears that there is not more than one institution in any group (Id., Del., Nev., N. M., U.). In a number of other states there is but one institution in one of the groups, as for example, but one hospital for the insane under a separate board of managers in each of the following states: Colo., Fla., Ga., La., N. H., N. D., Ore., S. C. and Vt., and but one penitentiary in each state under a separate board in Ark., Miss., N. H., N. C., Ore., S. C. In considerably over half of the remaining cases there exists a supervisory board whose influence and effect toward unification of management may be quite as great in important ways as would be a more formal centralization.

A second type of administrative system is found in Pennsylvania, where the hospitals for the insane are centralized under a committee of the supervisory state board.

A third type is represented by Massachusetts, Vermont and California, where the prisons are under centralized management. In California there is also a lunacy commission of *ex officio* members which tends toward unification but is without power of administrative appointment.

A fourth type, the most complex of all, is found in New York, where the administration in each of the three groups, prisons, lunacy and charities, is more or less centralized. The prisons for adult males are administered by the superintendent of prisons. The powers of administration of the hospitals for the insane are divided between local boards of managers and the state commission in lunacy, a body exercising pretty large general control over all the institutions. The charities (which include the reformatories for women, for girls and for boys) are slightly unified in administration through the fiscal supervisor and other state commissions, on salary classification and building.

A fifth type is represented by Kansas, where a board of control unites charities and lunacy while the prisons are under separate boards of managers.

A sixth type is represented by Kentucky, where charities and lunacy are under one board as in Kansas, but the penitentiaries are united under a single administrative board.

A seventh type is represented by Iowa and ten other states (including Illinois, June, 1909), in which the administration of charities, lunacy and prisons is under a single board of control. Six of these ten states are among the smaller ones. In Rhode Island almost all the institutions controlled are located upon a single farm. Arizona has but three institutions; Wyoming four; Oklahoma somewhat more; Washington six; and South Dakota eight. The largest groups of institutions under centralized administrative boards are found in Wisconsin and Nebraska with about twelve, and Iowa and Minnesota with about thirteen institutions each.

There is a somewhat greater tendency to centralize the groups of lunacy and of penology than of charities alone. In no state is the charity group centralized and the other two not. In Pennsylvania the lunacy group is centralized, while the other groups are not; in three (Cal., Mass., Vt.) the penal group is centralized and the other two are not; while in Kansas and Kentucky, charities and lunacy are brought together under a central board, and in Kentucky the prisons under a different

board; and in New York each of the two groups, lunacy and prisons, is under somewhat centralized control. Out of the forty-nine cases, thirty-one represent the simple type of decentralized management (sixteen of these being supervised by state boards and fifteen not so supervised), ten the complete centralized management of all state institutions, and eight the intermediate variations.

STATE SUPERVISION OF STATE INSTITUTIONS

The supervisory function may be performed by various kinds of boards, of which there are three types: (1) the *ex officio* board, either of state officers (as the prison board in N. H.), or a board created for a different main purpose (as the Board of Health supervising the hospital for insane in N. H.); (2) a single paid commissioner, elective as in Oklahoma or appointed by the governor as in N. J.; (3) an appointed unpaid or nominally paid board. The first is demonstrated by experience to be almost worthless, the second and the third are real and effective in proportion to the strength of personality and worth of character of the men and women of the boards.

The systems of supervision of state charities that are found in practice are of four main types, besides the merely negative condition (represented by Maine) found in fourteen states and one territory, where there are separate boards of management but no central supervision is provided. The first type, also mainly negative, is found in ten states and one territory, where there is more or less of centralized control but no board with supervisory powers, except to some degree and in some cases over local institutions.

A second type is found in Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Maryland, where the charities and the hospitals for the insane are supervised by separate boards, by a special state board in the case of Massachusetts and Maryland and by a board of charities and by a board of health in the case of New Hampshire.

A third type, found in New York alone, shows separate supervision of the charities by the State Board of Charities, and of the prisons by the State Prison Commission. There is no

unified supervision of the state hospitals for the insane, but the supervisory function is in a measure performed mutually by local boards of managers and the state commission in lunacy.

A fourth type is found in Pennsylvania, where one board supervises all the charitable and correctional institutions of the state, and a sub-committee constitutes the board of control of the hospitals for the insane.

A fifth type, represented by Indiana, is found in sixteen states and one district, where a supervisory board of charities and correction exercises advisory powers over all three groups of institutions. In four of these (Minn., Neb., Okla., Ill.) there is also a complete central control.

Supervisory and administrative boards may be combined in a single state in a number of ways as shown on the accompanying map.

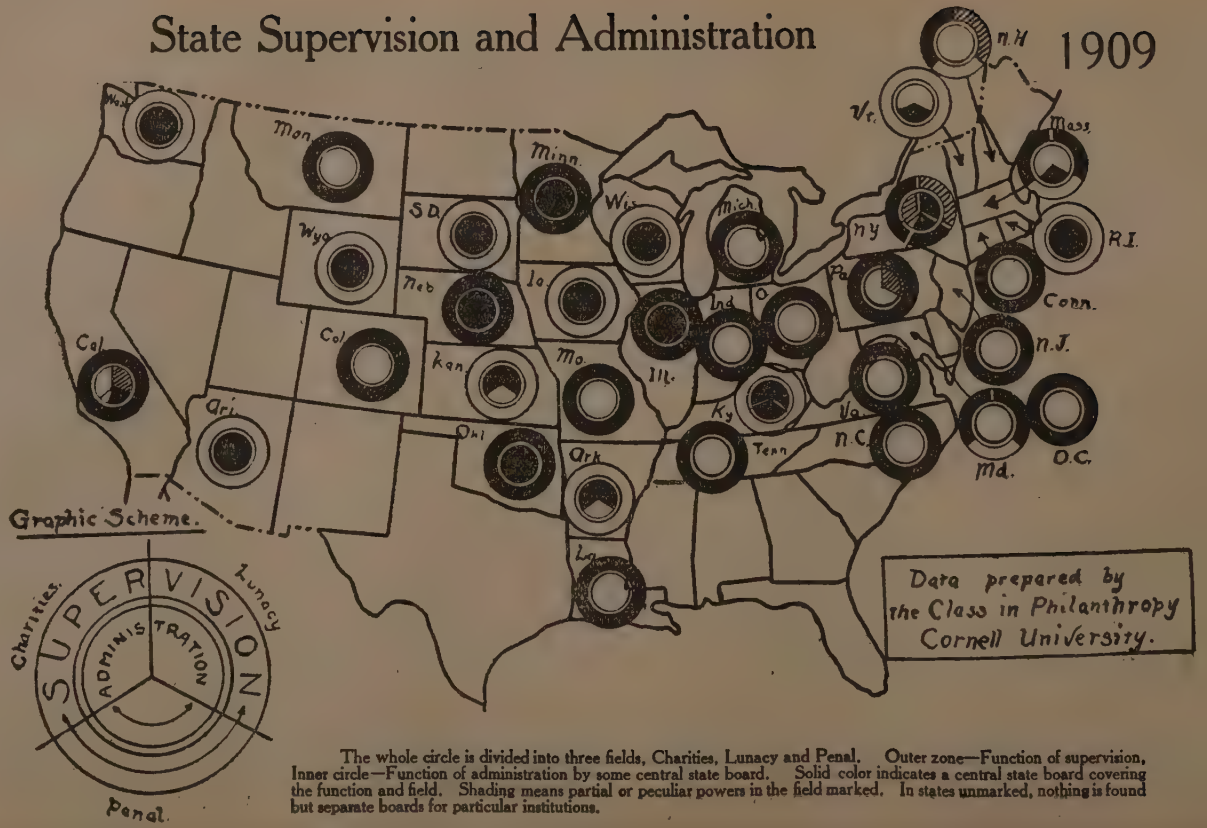
SUPERVISION OF PUBLIC LOCAL INSTITUTIONS, PENAL AND CHARITABLE

Contrary to the judgment of most penological experts, the local penal institutions in America remain under the administration of local officials. There is, however, observable a steady increase of central supervision by state boards, having more or less mandatory powers to enforce improvements in accordance with their recommendations, these powers amounting in some cases to a large measure of control of management, though not of appointments. It appears that local penal institutions are subject to the supervision of state boards in about two-thirds of the states.

Supervision of local public charities follows almost exactly the same lines as supervision of local penal institutions. Exceptions appear in the case of Massachusetts, where the jails and local charities are supervised by different boards; in Rhode Island, where the local public charities are not supervised at all, and in Wyoming, where the *ex officio* board of control supervises jails but not local charities.

Supervision of local private charities is far less complete and general than the supervision of public penal and charitable institutions, for in a number of the states it is limited specifically

State Supervision and Administration 1909



The whole circle is divided into three fields, Charities, Lunacy and Penal. Outer zone—Function of supervision, Inner circle—Function of administration by some central state board. Solid color indicates a central state board covering the function and field. Shading means partial or peculiar powers in the field marked. In states unmarked, nothing is found but separate boards for particular institutions.

in the law to institutions or societies receiving public money, and in New York is limited in the same way by a legal decision of 1899. By the recent law in Virginia, supervision extends over all charitable societies chartered by the state. The need of supervision has been more fully recognized in the case of children's institutions and child placing and a number of states have special provisions regulating this subject.

In several states, boards of county visitors have been created, appointed by the local judges or by the state board of charities to act as local allies and representatives of the state board. This plan as adopted in Ohio was thought to work well and was copied by the neighboring state of Indiana, and appears to be found also in Pennsylvania, Missouri, Nebraska, Illinois (by law of 1909) and possibly elsewhere. A unique board is found in Rhode Island called the Board of Female Visitors, whose duty it is to visit all institutions where women are supported by public funds or held in imprisonment.

GROWTH OF CENTRAL STATE BOARDS

The earliest state board of which we have found mention was the state board of prison inspectors in New York, established in 1847, consisting of three members elected on the state ticket, and having full control of the state prisons. With this exception, so far as we have found, the supervisory boards came first in order of time, and between the years 1863 and 1869 were established in six states, and up to 1885 in twelve. The excellent work done by some of the supervisory boards marked an epoch in philanthropy. They worked for progressive ideas, advanced the idea of the merit system in institutions, served to educate public opinion on the needs of wise philanthropy, and while having no executive powers, exercised a practical unifying influence on the administration of the various separate institutions, and operated toward economy of management.

The modern growth of boards of control began in Rhode Island, in 1869, to manage the institutions grouped upon a single farm. The second board of this type was in Kansas in 1873, a state with a population at that time about the same as

the present population of the city of Buffalo. The third and fourth boards of this type were established in 1890 in South Dakota and Wyoming, the latter board being *ex officio,* made up of elected state officers. There could not be said to have been any real rivalry between the two types of boards until the Wisconsin supervisory board was abolished in 1891, and in its place was put a central administrative board. Ever since then the issue "supervisory vs. administrative state boards" has been one of the most debated of this Conference, with the Conference opinion inclining strongly in favor of the supervisory kind. But new boards of the administrative type, especially the Iowa board of 1898, the Minnesota of 1901, and the regenerated Kansas board of 1905 have shown great efficiency and progressiveness and through their representatives have challenged a reconsideration of opinions on this important subject.

GROWING HARMONY BETWEEN ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY PLANS

There has been some growth of sentiment of late in favor of centralized management, yet it is remarkable that this has not weakened the supervisory principle in theory or in practice. Only one state that ever had a supervisory board has abandoned it and gone back to the old decentralized plan; that is, Oregon, whose excellent board, established in 1891, was abolished by the politicians in 1893 because of its progressiveness and offensive *non*-partisanship, and there is now in Oregon a strong movement for its re-establishment. Only one other state, Wisconsin, has ever abolished the supervisory board without later re-establishing one of the same kind. North Carolina established a supervisory board in 1869, abolished it, or let it lapse, but re-established it in 1889. Minnesota created a central administrative board in 1901 and at the same time abolished the supervisory board in the belief that the two boards could not work in harmony; but in 1907 a new board of visitors with broad supervisory powers was established. New York in 1902 did away with the local boards of managers of insane asylums, and gave their powers to the

administrative Commission in Lunacy; but in 1905 a strong public sentiment led to the re-establishment of the dual system by restoring the board of managers with substantial powers. Nebraska, which had a board of control *ex officio,* known as the Commissioners on Lands and Buildings, established in 1901 a supervisory board. In other places the plans of central control and supervision have come into harmony. Oklahoma, by its constitution, established an elective commissionership of charities and correction with supervisory powers, and in 1909, not against the opposition, but by the consent and recommendation of the commissioner, Miss Kate Barnard, established a central board of management for the state institutions. In Illinois the supervisory board of late has worked for a bill (enacted June, 1909) embodying the principles of supervision and administration in separate boards. This union of the two ideas in practice would have been almost incomprehensible ten or twenty years ago when the circumstances had led every one to look upon these two types of boards as mutually exclusive and antagonistic. The various states are experimenting with policies of supervision and administration. Is there such a thing as a *best* plan, best for the unfortunate wards of the state, and best for the whole community? The whole problem is now being restudied. The questions are involved and difficult of judgment. Let us venture to suggest some of the questions to be considered.

THE ESSENTIAL PROBLEMS OF MANAGEMENT

The problems of management grow out of the threefold character of the institutions:

1. They are philanthropic, for the welfare of the inmates.
2. They are public, supported by the taxpayer.
3. They are social, for the protection and elevation of the whole community.

Consequently, the essential qualities of management are:

1. Humane care for the unfortunates.
2. Economy for the taxpayers.
3. A far-sighted policy of social progress.

These three things are interwoven in practice far more than is generally recognized. Cruelty or bungling treatment of inmates is not economy, for it defeats the philanthropic purpose of the institution and wastes the resources of the state. Parsimony is not economy, for true economy means a far-sighted policy. Humane care means not only good food and creature comforts, but kindly treatment of the most hopeless custodial cases, and the most skilled treatment possible through modern science for improvable or curable cases. These are such simple, self-evidently desirable ends to attain that it would seem all should agree and work for them. But there are two great obstacles in the path; these are, popular ignorance of the right way, and the selfish interests of partisan politics. Overlooking many minor difficulties, the whole problem of the best plan of organizing the public system of philanthropic institutions may be put in the questions: (1) how can public opinion be educated and expressed in wise and progressive laws, and (2) how can a genuine merit system be maintained in public institutions?

These two things are in closer view, and in the light of experience, seen to be not two things, but two phases of a single thing. In a democracy the laws cannot be far ahead of or far behind the average popular opinion; where opinion on philanthropy is enlightened, the merit system will prevail. A large part of American legislation on institution management has been secured by rival politicians changing the laws in order to seize the offices for themselves and their supporters. Up to 1889, for fifty years in Indiana, all possible plans of appointment of boards of managers and of superintendents were tried, all for the purpose of insuring the spoils for some political party, and all lacking in the requisites of humanity, economy and progress. When the philanthropic sentiment of the American states began to grow stronger and more definite, the struggle of true philanthropy against the spoils system began. The controversy as to plans of supervision and administration is one part of this struggle, and administrative boards and supervisory boards are but tools to apply public sentiment; they are but devices to secure so far as possible the humane, economical and progressive conduct of the state philanthropies.

As tools they may be better or worse adapted to the work in any state at any time, and there are real reasons for choice among the different plans. But it is easy to attach too much importance to the particular form, while underestimating the importance of enlightened public opinion and of a true philanthropic spirit.

COMPARATIVE MERITS OF THE TWO TYPES OF BOARDS

In large part, boards of the administrative and of the supervisory types cannot be compared, for they do not perform the same functions. Where there is an administrative board it appoints the superintendents of the institutions and then inspects and criticizes his work, but where there is a supervisory board some other board, usually a separate board of trustees for the particular institution, appoints the superintendent. It is the working of any two systems of administration and supervision as wholes and not the two types of state boards only, that must be compared. We must bear in mind that neither board, not even the administrative kind, administers the institution. That is done almost entirely and it is the prevailing opinion that it should be done, by the superintendent left free to appoint his subordinates under competitive civil service rules and held responsible for results. A member of the Kansas Board of Control (H. C. Bowman) has thus expressed this principle: "It is the superintendent of an institution who is the institution." Upon the ability and character of the superintendent, if he is allowed to select his assistants under civil service rules, and if untormented by political spoilsmen, will depend in larger part the humane and efficient administration of the institution. The question here is whether the superintendents are likely to be better if selected by a central board of control than if selected by boards of the special institutions. It is not yet shown conclusively by experience that in this regard there is a clearly marked advantage of one method of appointment over the other, and this question may be left open.

A real advantage of central boards of control over local boards is the reduction of the rivalries of institutions in dif-

ferent parts of the state, whereby one institution gets more liberal appropriations than others with the same class of inmates.

Another advantage is in doing away with excessive influence brought to bear by local merchants and politicians upon trustees resident of the town where the institution is situated. This difficulty of the local boards can, however, be largely, perhaps entirely met by appointing upon the board no residents of the neighboring town.

There is some advantage in unified management where there are frequent transfers and conflicts of jurisdiction, as in the case of the several penal institutions or hospitals for the insane in a single state.

ECONOMY IN PURCHASING SUPPLIES

One of the strongest claims made for the centralized administrative board is its economy in purchasing supplies. This is greatest in buying goods which come from outside the state, as coffee, sugars, etc. It is doubtful whether this plan is always an advantage when the supplies can be largely bought under competitive bids in the neighborhood of the institutions, as from local millers, local small packers, fruit farms, etc. The danger of connivance of bidders and of monopoly prices made by large firms is less when the competition is open to many small dealers. Moreover, the centralizing of purchases has no logical or necessary practical connection with centralizing the appointments of superintendents. All of the advantages of central purchases probably can be had by a fiscal agency either in or outside of the control of a supervisory board. So simple a requirement as detailed accounts from the institutions and the presenting of the results each quarter in parallel columns, item by item, as is done in Indiana, accomplishes much, if not all, of the economies of centralized purchase. It is easy to exaggerate the importance of this kind of economy as compared with an enlightened and progressive policy, and excessive attention by boards of control to the purchase of supplies may be costly economy for the state.

PAID AND UNPAID SERVICES

Payment of the members has its advantages and its dangers. Five of the supervising boards receive pay (Oklahoma's commissioner, $1,500; New Jersey's commissioner, $3,000; Michigan's members, $2,000 each, and the two N. Y. boards, $10 a day, not exceeding $500 a year) while three of the central administrative boards are unpaid *ex officio* (Neb., Wyo., Ariz.) and the Rhode Island board is unpaid. Routine clerical work requiring the entire time of the official, and commercial work like the purchase of supplies, will be efficiently done only by well paid helpers, a fact clearly recognized in the salaries of the secretaries and of the clerical help of supervisory boards. But in philanthropic work more than anywhere else in the public service, it is possible to get free of charge the invaluable counsel, the public spirit, the broad outlook of our highest type of citizenship. Who could estimate in money the services of William P. Letchworth on the State Board of New York, or of Timothy Nicholson for twenty years on the Indiana Board?

DANGER FROM THE SPOILSMEN

The likelihood of partisanship intruding itself into a board is, other things being equal, in proportion to the spoils the board controls. The central administrative board is more tempted because it controls more offices and salaries. Under the plan of local boards of management the danger points are the governor and the local trustees, not the state supervisory board. Even a supervisory board that appoints only its secretary and office force has its temptations. The sad inefficiency of some supervisory boards is doubtless due to political influence in the selection of a secretary. The remarkable achievements of the Indiana supervisory board, on the contrary, are in large part due to its three secretaries, each a national figure in philanthropy, and each president of this Conference—Alexander Johnson, Amos W. Butler, and Ernest Bicknell. Oklahoma has shown that the exact form of organization is not so essential as the enlightened spirit. The duties of the Oklahoma commissioner of charities are much

the same as those of the paid secretary of a supervisory board, and she has made her own board by calling about her not only the most progressive citizenship of Oklahoma, but expert counsellors from every part of the Union, thus providing for her state a unique national supervisory board.

In the past the salaried board of control has been the preference of the practical politician, while the supervisory board has been the choice of most of the disinterested philanthropic students. It can hardly be questioned that in the past politics has been more of a besetting sin with boards of control than with the other type. It is therefore most remarkable and commendable that the principle of non-partisan appointment was written into the Iowa law of 1898 establishing the board of control, prohibiting political influence upon and contributions by employes, and making it a misdemeanor for any member of the board or any officer thereof to influence the selection of employes or assistants whom the superintendents have power to appoint. A similar provision appears in the Kansas law of 1905, which declares that "no political action or political affiliation shall be considered sufficient cause for the discharge of an employe." Even with such laws the ever imminent danger that bad politics will creep in somewhere, can be met only if the board members clearly recognize the causes, and if a large body of citizens, not pecuniarily interested, are ready to defend the institutions against the attacks of the spoilsmen. The problem is, how to maintain and develop this broad interest in philanthropic affairs.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF SUPERVISORY BOARDS

It is in broadening the popular interest in and understanding of philanthropic problems that the supervisory boards, state and local, enlisting the unpaid services of many citizens, have been most effective, and have shown themselves unrivaled. It is the belief of many that "where the board of control" comes into a state "the state charities conference dies." Likewise too often has languished interest in the National Conference. Boards of control are less frequently, fully, and actively represented in these gatherings than are super-

visory boards. The presence here of recent years and today of representatives from Kansas and Iowa is more than accidental; it is evidence of the exceptional vitality of the administrative boards of those two states. The danger seems to be that when the members of boards of control become engrossed in business details, they lose the larger relations of the work of public philanthropy and its spiritual significance, which this Conference knows is essential to lasting progress, however much the cynic may scoff at what he can not understand.

STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES

The following conclusions are presented for the consideration of the Conference:

(1) The first and most essential condition for the humane, economical and progressive conduct of the state philanthropic institutions is the exclusion of partisan politics. The merit system of appointment should prevail, and for this end the one essential is not any particular form of board necessarily, but is the forbidding of partisanship and favoritism by strict laws backed by a moral and intelligent public opinion regarding the merit system in penal and charitable institutions.

(2) The sound growth of the philanthropies of the state requires a large measure of participation by citizens in philanthropic work, thus developing intelligent interest in the wards of the state and an understanding of the difficulties and needs of the institution. This ideal is greatly advanced by a complete system of supervision, maintained by a non-paid or nominally paid board with paid secretary and assistants covering the state as a whole.

(3) The supervisory boards should, much more fully than most of them have done in the past, take the initiative in the formulation of a progressive philanthropic policy for the state.

(4) Such a degree of unification of business management of state institutions is desirable as is most economical for each class of institution in view of its peculiar administrative problems, and that is most economical in each state in view

of distances, means of transportation and communication, the possible improvement of methods of purchasing supplies, of interchanging products and of maintaining the efficiency of the administration.

(5) The local jails should be brought under the supervision of a central board in each state, pending a completer centralization of control of the minor penal institutions of the state.

(6) State supervision of local public charities, both institutional and outdoor relief, should be provided in every state, and local county visiting committees may helpfully co-operate with the state supervisory board.

(7) State supervision of private charities without interference with religious or other private matters, should be based on the recognition of the public nature of these associations, implied not only in public aid in the form of money, but in exemption from taxation, and in their state incorporation, and involved necessarily in the social character of the problems with which they deal.

NOTE TO REPORT

The chairman last summer mailed several copies of the revised form of this report to members of the committee with the request that each one reading it should remail it in accordance with the list of addresses attached. Every one of these copies was lost or mislaid, and all efforts to locate them have failed. The chairman must, therefore, assume responsibility for the report in its present form. Some members approved without comment, and the range of opinions in the committee probably may be indicated by the views of other members who could not agree with the report in every particular.

P. M. Ringdal, member of the State Board of Control of Minnesota, questions whether the Minnesota Board of Visitors was created in 1907 in response to a popular demand. He believes that the last half of conclusion 2 is still open to question in Minnesota, and that conclusion 3 may be true if the board is composed of hard-headed, practical men. All the other conclusions he approves and declares that political considerations are

entirely excluded in the making of appointments in Minnesota.

Dr. Charles Gorst, superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane at Mendota, Wis., approves the report in the main, placing special emphasis on 5, 6 and 7, but is of "opinion that a non-partisan state board of control is the best method of managing the charitable and penal institutions of the state."

The Rev. D. J. McMahon, supervisor of Catholic charities of New York City, expresses appreciation of the worth of the report, but, on account of conclusion 7, does not sign it. He believes that "the state should come in when suspicion of abuse in any way" arises, but not otherwise in the case of institutions not supported from public funds.

THE PROPER DIVISION OF CHARITABLE WORK BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE AGENCIES

BY H. C. BOWMAN, MEMBER OF BOARD OF CONTROL, TOPEKA, KAN.

(*Abridged.*)

The state and its sub-divisions are supported through taxation. Equality of burden is the fundamental thought in the constitutional law of taxation. The courts usually measure equality in taxation by reference to the amount of benefits received, and this theory is known in political economy as the "benefit" theory. This was the theory upon which the old economists justified taxation. It regards the state in the light of an insurance company to which the citizen pays his taxes and receives in return a certain amount of law, order, justice and protection. This theory was taken by the courts and law writers from the early economists, and has prevailed in the courts to the present day.

The present day economists are exploding this theory and are substituting in its place what is known as the "faculty" theory. They regard the tax contribution to the support of the state in the same light and based on the same principles as the

contribution of the various members of a family to its support—each contributing according to his ability, or faculty, and not in proportion to benefits received. It is the accepted theory of modern economic thought, although it has not been accepted in law books and judicial decisions.

If taxes were apportioned according to the ability to bear the burden, then the national government and the state and its sub-divisions should do and could do more charitable work for humanity than is now being done. If the indigency and destitution of our land are due to our general social and industrial conditions, then the wealthy, who could relieve such conditions by using their wealth properly, should by taxation be compelled to do so. But the citizens who are doing their best to rear their families and make them good citizens, and who are paying for small homes or trying to lay up a few dollars for a rainy day, should not be compelled to divide with a lot of drones—has-beens, would-bes and can't-bes. Too much help weakens any one. No one can be strong who is assisted from birth to the grave. Too much charity is not good for any one.

People generally dislike to pay taxes. The principal burdens of taxation are being borne by the frugal, self-supporting, home-building poor of our land, and the burden upon them should not be increased. Frugality and the owning of homes should be encouraged. A home owner is a friend instead of an enemy to the institution of property, an institution which lies at the very basis of our civilization and which ought to be encouraged in every possible manner. The best way to raise taxes is to tax incomes and inheritances, and eventually a scheme of taxation will be evolved to make the rich and well-to-do pay their just proportion of the burden of taxation.

The question of what benevolent or charitable work ought to be carried on by the states and their sub-divisions is limited to what can be legally carried on under the constitutions and laws of our land as now construed by the courts. In the case of Troutman v. De Boissiere, 66 Ks., page 10, the Kansas Supreme Court, among other things, held:

> As said by the Supreme Court of the United States, "the law respecting property held for charitable uses of course depends upon the legislation and jurisprudence of the country in

which the property is situated and the uses that are carried out" (Mormon Church v. United States, supra); so that a gift which might be a valid public charity in England may not be so in the United States. England has no written constitution. English courts may, therefore, declare that to be a public charity which could not be such under our written constitutions. The fourteenth amendment to the federal constitution forbids legislation in favor of artificial classes, and prevents the appropriation of public funds to other than strictly public uses.

Some people argue that the government is the unit and that its duty is to provide for the welfare of its citizens; that the benefits a citizen receives through the tax-supported institutions is not a charity or benevolent gratuity, but belongs to him as a right of citizenship. Opposed to this are the decisions of courts along the line of The State v. Switzler, 143 Missouri 287, in which the court says:

> Paternalism, whether state or federal, as the derivation of the term implies, is an assumption by the government of a quasi-fatherly relation to the citizen and his family, involving excessive governmental regulation of the private affairs and business methods and interests of the people, upon the theory that the people are incapable of managing their own affairs, and is pernicious in its tendencies. In a word, it minimizes the citizen and maximizes the government. Our federal and state governments are founded upon a principle wholly antagonistic to such a doctrine. Our fathers believed the people of these free and independent states were capable of self-government—a system in which the people are the sovereigns and the government their creature to carry out their commands. Such a government is founded on the willingness and the right of the people to take care of their own affairs, and an indisposition on their part to look to the government for everything. The citizen is the unit. It is his province to support the government, and not the government's to support him. Under self-government, we have advanced in all the elements of a great people more rapidly than any nation that has ever existed upon the earth, and there is greater need now than ever before in our history of adhering to it. Paternalism is a plant that should receive no nourishment upon the soil of Missouri.

The legislature of Missouri had passed an act imposing a tax for establishing and maintaining free scholarships in the State University. The scholarships were to be filled by competitive examinations and were to be open to all residents of the respective counties of the state who should be dependent upon their own exertions for their education and otherwise unable to obtain the same. The proceeds of the tax were to be used for

the personal support and maintenance of such students while in attendance on the State University. The act was held to be taxation for a private purpose and void, the court holding that it is one thing to provide for the establishment and maintenance of a state university and a system of free public schools and a wholly different thing to support private individuals who attend the university or public schools by public taxation. That the act under consideration endowed the scholar, not the university, and was a pure and simple gift of public money of the state to private individuals for their own use.

The principles limiting taxation in aid of charities are closely allied to those which limit it in aid of education. All the courts agree that taxes can only be laid for public purposes, and that taxation for private purposes or to bestow some private benefit upon some individual, or individuals, is void, regardless of the absence of express constitutional prohibition. Public purposes are those which inure to the benefit of the whole community. The right to tax depends upon the ultimate use, purpose and object for which the fund is raised.

The people of the United States have not delegated the duties of government to any one governmental agency. The national government and the state government have each its well-defined purposes and sphere of action. Then the state is divided into local governments—the county, township and city. The purposes for which these various governments exist are defined and generally well understood. Each is limited in taxation to the furtherance of its appropriated purposes, so that, however public the purpose, unless it be one for which the taxing government exists, the tax is invalid.

It is impossible to lay down any hard and fast rule by which to determine which are public and which private purposes. Each case must be judged on its own facts. Almost every project of public benefit has some element of peculiar personal profit to individuals, and hardly any attempt along the line of a private purpose is without some colorable pretext of public good. The obligation of the state and the counties to the unfortunates is clearly defined by Chief Justice Brewer of

the United States Supreme Court in an opinion when he was a justice of the Supreme Court of Kansas, in State ex rel. v. Osawakee Twp., 14 Ks. 422. Justice Brewer, speaking for the court, held:

> The relief of the poor—the care of those who are unable to care for themselves—is among the unquestioned objects of public duty * * *. We have no thought of asserting that because a man is not rich, or even because he has nothing but the proceeds of his daily labor, therefore taxation may be upheld in his behalf. Such taxation would be simply an attempt on the part of the state to equalize the property of its citizens. Something more than "poverty," in that sense of the term, is essential to charge the state with the duty of support. It is, strictly speaking, the pauper, and not the poor man, who has claims on public charity. It is not one who is in want merely, but one who, being in want, is unable to prevent or remove such want. There is the idea of helplessness as well as of destitution. We speak of those whom society must aid as the dependent classes, not simply because they do depend on society, but because they can not do otherwise than thus depend. Cold and harsh as the statement may seem, it is nevertheless true, that the obligation of the state to help is limited to those who are unable to help themselves. It matters not through what the inability arises—whether from age, physical infirmity, or other misfortune—it is enough that it exists. It is doubtless true that, in the actual administration of the poor-laws, many who are not properly entitled thereto receive public support; but failures in the administration of laws do not change the principles upon which they must rest.

It is held everywhere by all courts and law writers that the state or its political sub-divisions may levy taxes for the support of the poor and for public hospitals, almshouses, orphans' homes, reformatories and the like, maintained by the public, open to the public, and under the control of the public authorities.

It is also the tendency of the courts to uphold appropriations to private charitable institutions, upon the ground that it is the duty of the state and its sub-divisions to support the poor and indigent sick and to provide homes and reformatories for children and others who are in need of care, and if private or semi-public institutions do this work, which otherwise the state or its sub-divisions would have to do, the public money may be appropriated in repayment. The private institution must be a public charity and not devoted to the benefit of a religious organization or lodge or club. However, a charity may still be public, although it restricts its admissions to a class

of humanity, such as the blind, the deaf, the aged, infants, men or women, so long as the classification is determined by some distinction which affects any of the whole people. The fact that a charge is made to those able to pay does not destroy the public character of the charity if it is free to those unable to pay without distinction of class.

These thoughts as to the limitations of the taxing power are taken from the decisions of the courts and law writers. With these legal limitations what benevolent or charitable work ought the state or its sub-divisions carry on?

THE INSANE

The state and the counties must have institutions for the insane, not only for the benefit of the insane patients, but in order to protect the general public. The institutions should be built and equipped by taxation, but should the general public be compelled to pay beyond this, except for the care and maintenance of those who are unable to pay and who do not have relatives bound by law to support them, who are able to do so? Institutional people usually look at everything from the institutional point of view and not from the point of view of the taxpayer. Some argue that it frequently occurs that one patient is made to feel his dependency on public charity, while another complains that he is made to pay for no better care than others are receiving for nothing; that the property owners of the state support the institutions and are entitled to the benefit of the hospitals without an additional charge as a matter of right of citizenship. On the other hand, looking at it from the point of view of the great body of taxpayers, is it right to require the taxpayers to pay a greater tax in order to maintain patients who are able to maintain themselves? No reasonable argument can be advanced as to why parents, children or estates are not under the same obligation, moral and pecuniary, to meet the expense incurred in the care of those dependent upon them for support who are afflicted with a mental ailment as they are now under to care for them on account of physical ailments. An inquiry in lunacy is not a criminal proceeding.

It is more along the line of a quarantine regulation. The taxpayers are not called upon to pay for the maintenance of a person quarantined for smallpox or other contagious or infectious disease unless such person is indigent. During recent years there has been an extraordinary increase of more than one hundred per cent. in the number of insane in hospitals and the burden to the taxpayers is getting to be enormous. The great modern problem is not how to get inmates in the institutions for the insane, but it is how to get them out. Two-thirds of the increase of population is due to the sluggish outflow and one-third to the reception of new cases. The taxpayers should be required to provide for the indigent insane, but the ones who are able, or their families who are able, should pay the per capita current expense of the maintenance of all others.

In most states there is a sort of dual responsibility in the care of the insane between the state and the counties. The policy of having counties provide for part of the insane is neither scientific nor economical. It is utterly impossible for each county to have a county insane hospital with a corps of skilled physicians and trained nurses. State care is the only method that conforms to the demands of our present civilization. The only objection to state care is that it inclines the counties to impose upon the state, by transferring to the state insane hospitals defectives who are dependent upon the county for support, and who are properly only almshouse charges. To avoid this objection in many of the states the counties are charged with a fixéd sum for each indigent patient admitted from a given county, and the collection is made directly from the county. This has an inhibitory influence on the counties from converting the state insane hospitals into state almshouses. It also lessens the burden of the taxpayers. The county authorities know the financial condition of the patient and his family and whether he should be maintained by taxation, and object to paying for his maintenance if he or his relatives are amply able to do so. If the patient is admitted as a county patient and afterwards inherits property, the county authorities learn of this much more readily than any state board and would have the patient changed from a county to a private patient. This plan

is also the most effective way of getting at the moral responsibility of relatives.

THE FEEBLE-MINDED

The misery and suffering, the vice and crime, and the burden of taxation caused by feeble-mindedness is realized by but few. The blight is found everywhere. Feeble-mindedness, imbecility and idiocy are simply varying degrees, and such an individual can not be made normal by any human means. There is no cure for imbecility except to stop the source by institutional care or sterilization. They reproduce themselves, married or unmarried, in succeeding generations and no one can measure the depravity, misery and ultimate results. Normal parents, through dissipation, vice or disease, can produce feeble-minded children, but a feeble-minded person can not produce a normal child. Each state should maintain an institution or institutions for the feeble-minded sufficient to accommodate all such persons. The inmates of the existing institutions for the feeble-minded are principally children and the institutions are usually named schools. The old prevailing notion that these children can be educated and trained into self-supporting and self-directing citizens is dying out. Every institution for the feeble-minded should, in addition to a school, be a home for idiots, imbeciles and feeble-minded of all ages, and in addition to the admission of children as pupils the law should also provide a legal process for the commitment of such persons. Collections for the care and maintenance of such persons should be upon the same basis as the insane and this is the present Kansas law.

THE EPILEPTIC—SANE AND INSANE

Each state should establish a separate institution for epileptics, to which should be removed all epileptic insane in the state hospitals and the more competent epileptics from the feeble-minded institutions. Kansas is one of the few states in the Union which has entirely separated the epileptic and non-epileptic insane, and this has been a great relief to both classes. The most reliable authorities estimate that there is one epileptic to every five hundred of the general population. Of this num-

ber there is a large percentage who really need and would be benefited by hospital or colony care. All sane epileptics should be admitted on voluntary commitment and properly classified. Every such institution should maintain a school for the education of the epileptic children in connection with the hospital. The pay feature should be the same as for the insane and feeble-minded.

CONSUMPTIVES

Civilization is in arms preparing an attack on the "Great White Plague." Tuberculosis is the most widely spread and deadly disease that affects humanity. It is infectious and is communicated from the sick to the well. Each state should maintain a sanatorium to teach consumptives how to get well, take care of those who are beyond relief, and also to teach the people so they may not become consumptives. In most of the states there is no place where poor persons afflicted with tuberculosis can be taken, and sometimes the cases are very pitiful.

HABITUAL DRUNKARDS, DRUG HABITUES, ETC.

The liquor states should provide a separate institution, with suitable workshops attached, where all habitual drunkards, drug habitues and syphilitics, and all others whose mental derangement has been brought on by their own evil practices, shall be confined until thought to be cured. Releases should be on parole, and if the person is not reformed, then he should be returned for a longer period.

THE CHILDREN

Most of the states are dealing generously with their incorrigible children. Juvenile courts have been established with probation officers. Detention homes have been, and are being, established in many cities to keep children out of jails. The states maintain industrial or reform schools that are progressing along established lines of modern thought. Some of these schools should be broadened so they can receive incorrigible

blind or deaf children, so as to relieve the county authorities.

With the dependent and neglected child it is different. The care of these children in many states is left to voluntary agencies. The class that contributes chiefly to the population of our semi-penal and penal institutions is the destitute and neglected children of the state who are without paternal care or the restraint of home training. The state should in self-protection take such children before they become criminals and place them under control and within surroundings which will prevent them drifting into paths of vice and crime and make them useful citizens.

Each state should maintain an institution for all dependent and neglected children, which should be a temporary home only and the children placed in good family homes as soon as possible. The state should undertake the management and supervisory care of all dependent and neglected children. This does not affect the fair work of private agencies, but all private children's agencies should be supervised by the state. The laws of each state should prohibit the keeping of children in almshouses.

THE BLIND AND DEAF

The object of schools for the blind and schools for the deaf is to provide an education and form a link in the public school system; yet they are nevertheless maintained for the benefit of special classes and possess all the essential attributes of establishments devoted to benevolent work in the way of providing free care and maintenance, and are listed by the government as benevolent institutions. There should be more industrial training in our schools for the juvenile blind and there should be separate industrial institutions for the adult blind. A chance to learn and to earn should be given to every adult blind person. The state should furnish maintenance and the materials at actual cost, permitting the inmates to keep the full net profits from their individual labor.

SOLDIERS, SAILORS, ETC.

The state should maintain homes for dependent soldiers, sailors, their widows and children and army nurses, as rewards for their loyalty and patriotism.

All the classes discussed under their separate headings come within the scope of this paper, "Benevolent or Charitable Work that the State Ought to Carry On," and it is about all the charitable work that the state is able to carry on under our present system of taxation. The states now attempt to take care of a certain number of their insane, epileptics, feeble-minded, deaf mutes and blind, dependent and delinquent children, and so on, but the states have not provided so as to take care of all and can not do so for sheer want of funds. The work of boards of health, labor commissioners, free employment bureaus and kindred work of this kind carried on by the state and its subdivisions, strictly speaking, does not come within the scope of this paper.

A Children's Bureau in the Department of the Interior should be established to investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child labor.

There is a growing feeling, especially in the eastern states, that the state should assist in devising better methods than now exist for the care of the homeless and vagrant. Vagrancy is a state and national problem, and present methods are neither sufficiently repressive nor sufficiently helpful. In order to solve the vagrancy problem there must be state guidance through some state board, and co-operation with the other states and with the Federal government.

PRIVATE BENEVOLENCE

Private benevolences should carry on work that is not and also what can not be carried on by the state, and this field is very broad—associated charities, provident associations, settlement work, dispensaries, day nurseries, playground associations, visiting nurses, hospitals for the indigent sick, rescue homes and homes for adults, and kindred work. The churches, religious organizations, patriotic organizations, fraternal societies and clubs are doing lines of charitable work that could not be done by other agencies. Private charities keep alive and active the spirit of benevolent charity among the people. Better than any

tax-supported institution is the work done by private benevolence.

On the other hand, there is a multitude of so-called charity workers who are conscientious men and women, but who have mistaken ideas of what is really needed to better the condition of the unfortunates about them. They rush into charity work with the most noble impulses, but with a very superficial knowledge of the work to be done and the manner in which it should be done and there are useless private institutions in every state. There must be systematic organized efforts and there must be men and women of the best judgment and training at the head.

Private institutions have no right to organize on the assumption that the state will aid them by taxation. If private charity undertakes a benevolent work it should assume the entire burden which it pretends to carry. The trend of opinion is that state aid is not a wise practice, and yet in states where neither the state nor its sub-divisions maintain hospitals for the indigent sick, rescue homes for fallen women, and homes for the aged, it would seem that state aid is justifiable. If state aid is to be given to private charitable institutions it should be given to institutions engaged in work not provided for by the state.

Pensions to civil employes may be regarded as part of the compensation that such employes receive. The expectation of sharing in such pension fund is one of the inducements that the public holds out to employes to encourage their services.

The world is beginning to learn that the life of every man, rich or poor, educated or uneducated, industrious or lazy, honest or dishonest, is bound up with the life of his neighbor.

We will close in the language of President Roosevelt in the Outlook for April 10, 1909:

> The best lesson that any people can learn is that there is no patent cure-all which will make the body politic perfect, and that any man who is able glibly to answer every question as to how to deal with the evils of the body politic is at best a foolish visionary and at worst an evil-minded quack.

PRIVATE CHARITIES WITHOUT SUPERVISION BY A STATE BOARD

BY DAVID F. TILLEY, MEMBER MASSACHUSETTS BOARD OF STATE CHARITY, BOSTON

So much has been said for years past on the question of supervision that little remains to be added. The subject assigned to me this morning I shall treat from the standpoint of our experience in Massachusetts, confining myself to those charities which would properly come under the supervision of a state board of charity.

As you have been told in years past, it is not our policy in Massachusetts to give financial support from public funds to private charities, although the fact that a charitable organization is incorporated does exempt it from taxation. All incorporated charities in Massachusetts dealing with dependents are required by law to make a report to the State Board of Charity each year of their receipts, expenses, number of persons aided, number of employes, lists of their officers, etc. There is no penalty if they fail to comply with this requirement of law, but the number failing to report is small. We have in Massachusetts at the present time 604 agencies required by law to report to the state board. Of this number 42 did not report for the year 1908, although they were furnished with forms and instructions and in nearly every case with repeated reminders. One agency did not report after blank was returned to them for correction, 44 because they were not in active operation, and 20 stated that they had not been in existence a complete year. Four hundred and ninety-seven agencies did report that they had expended, according to annual report of the State Board of Charity for year 1908, $6,473,636. The value of property owned and occupied by them for corporate purposes, together with their investments, aggregated $53,301,259.

For several years past we have endeavored to secure legislation requiring supervision of private charities but without success. This year, however, the following act was passed by

the Massachusetts legislature, and under it we hope and expect to accomplish all that is possible:

> "Section 1. The State Board of Charity, upon the request or with the consent of a charitable corporation which, under the provisions of section fourteen of chapter eighty-four of the Revised Laws, as amended by chapter four hundred and two of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and three, is required to make an annual report to said board, shall, at least once in every year, visit and inspect the institution or other work of said corporation.
>
> "Section 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage."

Personally I believe that the objections which have been raised in the past by private charities (not receiving public funds) to supervision by a state board is due to a misconception of what supervision really means. They fear that once the state board has a right to visit and inspect it will be extremely arbitrary and compel officials of institutions and other private organizations to abandon or change methods which they consider perfect and to which they are wedded. Supervision to be effective must be administered in a most kindly and considerate manner, be performed by officials who are broad enough to see the good in every system, and who will assist by pointing out evils wherever they exist and suggest remedies.

We in Massachusetts are proud of our private charities. Without them the state would indeed be severely handicapped. That there is room for improvement no one will deny, but I am confident in the belief that the officials of our private charities are anxious to do the best possible for their charges. The trouble is that they are pledged to a system under which they have been working for years and have not been brought in touch with new ideas. They have contented themselves with the thought, "Let well enough alone," feeling that what was good enough ten or twenty years ago is good enough today.

Supervision should mean the kindly inspection by one who, having the opportunity of visiting all the institutions or agencies in a community, can observe the best that each is doing and by tactful suggestions secure the abandonment of

obsolete methods and the introduction of new ones that will bring about better treatment of the poor unfortunates that require our assistance.

To my mind it is impossible to lay down a rule that will apply to all parts of this great country of ours, for in each section there are different conditions existing that must be met and solved in the most practicable way. For example, public opinion in Massachusetts requires that persons suffering with leprosy must be isolated on an island away from everybody else, whereas the people of New York do not require such treatment of these unhappy creatures.

More care should be exercised in the matter of granting incorporation to private charities. Mrs. Barrett, at Richmond last year, said:

> "One of the most important reasons for requiring state supervision over private charities is the fact that the state grants to every private charity which holds real estate, or is so organized as to be perpetuated, certain rights in its charter, and the state should be able to assure itself that these rights are properly safeguarded. No charity could do very much along the line of organization without a charter. The state grants this charter without cost, and by this means makes it possible for an institution to receive legacies, to hold real estate, and, in a way, stands for the respectability and value of the organization in the eye of the public.
>
> "The fact that a charity has a charter is looked upon as a guarantee of its value and honesty of administration, but the state signally fails to safeguard these rights and makes it possible for people to receive money under practically false pretenses, when it grants such a charter, upon the request of persons of whom they know little and of their successors, of whom they know nothing, and then asks no accounting of the stewardship. No organization should be chartered by the state unless it is willing to submit to such supervision as will guarantee the state from being the unconscious partner of those who, either from ignorance or fraud, are unsuited to deal with the problems for which it was chartered."

I am sorry to say that in my own state of Massachuetts we are still lacking in the requirements for incorporation of charitable societies, for during the year 1908 we incorporated

the "Sandy Maloney Midnight Mission" to rescue fallen humanity and to provide midnight shelter for men and women in Boston. With our municipal lodging houses for men and women there is no occasion for any charity of this kind, but, fortunately, thus far nothing has been done towards operating under their charter.

When one stops to consider that state supervision means simply the offer of friendly advice, that the care of dependents is a great and solemn responsibility and that those of us who are earnestly engaged in this serious work are eager to welcome the help of all who are good enough to offer suggestions, what should one engaged in this work do but listen with willing ears to the propositions made by those whose experience and interests prompt them to offer assistance?

The whole problem is so vast that few of us can know well but one phase of it and yet in each institution there always appears a certain percentage of unusual cases that defies the everyday experience. There is, for instance, the epileptic, the feeble-minded, the more perplexing case which seems to have no classification, and the hundred and one instances that occur to disturb the well-ordered administration of any institution. But yet these are the examples that demand from us our most careful thought and our greatest charity and patience. For instance, one who is engaged in children's work knows it is always easy to find a home for the attractive child. It is the anemic, the unattractive, possibly the child whose mentality is below par, that is the problem. Yet who that is worthy of his salt would feel content to dispose satisfactorily of the more attractive class and leave to the chance of fate the more pitiable and therefore the more lovable residuum.

The testimony of persons identified with charitable institutions in those states where supervision has been made through friendly co-operation a matter of state law, has clearly proved it to have been most acceptable and beneficial to all concerned. From a number of them I have learned that the idea of supervision when first proposed met with great opposition by those identified with the best established institutions. This opposition was based upon the ground that their institu-

tions and boards of managers were all that could be desired and that any attack upon their administration would bring about the loss of some of the best supporters of their work, disorganization of their system, and other disastrous results.

I am told that the establishment of the law with regard to supervision in New York came as the result of conferences between representatives of all creeds at which it was made certain that there was no intention of supervising for the purpose of fault-finding, but that the sole object was to build up and improve good institutions and drive out those which were worse than useless because of their mismanagement or dishonest administration. It did not require the experience of a year to demonstrate the value of supervision. The managers of all institutions realized the great aid offered them by the suggestions and friendly criticisms of the inspectors and above all the inestimable value of a public and official endorsement of their work and methods. The trained inspectors, conversant with all the requirements and laws pertaining to sanitation, protection in case of fire, advanced methods of accounting, etc., have raised the standards of those institutions in the states where supervision has been properly carried on to a degree far in advance of those of any former period.

The State of New York may be offered as an example of those in which great good has been accomplished by supervision. I have followed the reports and papers of its state conferences concerning the improved conditions of its public and private charities and of the very important part which the supervision and helpful criticism of its State Board of Charities has played in bringing about this desirable result and I cannot but feel that if this same method was applied to the administration of charities in all other states good institutions would accomplish greater results, bad ones would be put out of operation and a better spirit would be engendered among all persons identified with the various branches of our charity work.

THE PROBLEM OF STATE SUPERVISION IN ILLINOIS

BY WILLIAM C. GRAVES, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

State supervision of the public charities in Illinois will be conducted on a new basis beginning on January 1, 1910. A law approved by Governor Deneen today becomes fully operative at that time. For about sixteen years the campaign for a change has been under way in Illinois. During the last three years the negotiations have been conducted at close range. I shall try in this paper to avoid all reference to misunderstandings and bitterness growing out of this long endeavor. I shall try, also, to avoid argument or even reasons for or against the views or the conduct of any one. The paper will be made up, in so far as the writer is able so to prepare it, of a statement of facts regarding the steps leading to the enactment of the new law, and a brief of its leading provisions.

The unrest and toil of earnest persons for thirteen years prior to 1906 were focused in a reorganized State Board of Charities, appointed early in that year by Governor Deneen, who, during the preceding year, the first of his incumbency, had secured the enactment of a civil service law, embracing the employes of the state charitable institutions. The executive instructed the new Board of Charities to examine into existing conditions of the public charity service and equipment and to make recommendations for their further improvement, if improvement were needed. The governor stated (October 18, 1906) his position as follows:

> It is the purpose of this administration to place the charitable institutions of this state on as high a level as that occupied by any in this country or elsewhere. To that end I solicit the cooperation of all our state boards and of the well-disposed citizens of the state.

The system of supervision then in vogue, and now soon to be abandoned, was that of a State Board of Charities with power of inspection, investigation, criticism, and recommendation covering the seventeen state charitable institutions,

each of which was administered by a local board of trustees. The Board of Charities had administrative jurisdiction over a newly-created department for the visitation of children placed in family homes. It also had a careful system of auditing of institution accounts, but the audit was made after expenditures were made instead of before. The two prisons and the state reformatory were not subject to the State Board of Charities.

The new board, with the co-operation of the governor, proceeded at once to make a survey of the institutions as to their physical condition and as to systems of administration, particularly medical administration. It found the older institutions to be out of repair, insanitary, dangerous as to fire, with obsolete, defective and wasteful mechanical equipment, and greatly overcrowded. The state architect and his consulting engineer reported that to put the institutions in satisfactory physical condition would cost about $2,500,000. The medical service was inadequate and unscientific, especially in the group of institutions for the insane. The need of co-ordination of the institutions along business lines was apparent, although an excellent system of uniform accounting had been installed.

The State Board of Charities, with the situation as indicated, decided to endeavor to bring about first, so far as practical, those alterations which would bring most quickly comfort and safety to the inmates; and, secondly, those changes intended to effect economy in operation. In response to the recommendations of the State Board of Charities the Forty-fifth General Assembly in 1907 appropriated $1,584,802 for physical rehabilitation and new buildings. This was only a good start. The money has been disbursed during the last two years. Also during the same period a scientific system of medical administration, with modern curative equipment, was installed throughout the service with special emphasis on the institutions for the insane and feeble-minded. As part of the medical system a State Psychopathic Institute was established at the Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Kankakee, was equipped with the finest laboratory apparatus

the markets of the world afford and began its work of educating the physicians in the state service with highly beneficial results to the patients on the wards. Modern nursing was made a part of the medical administration. A measure for the complete state care of the insane was enacted.

Having provided the primary necessities of physical rehabilitation and medical standards the Board of Charities addressed itself to the matter of general organization. In October, 1907, the president of the board was authorized to appoint a committee of citizens to advise the Board in the preparation of a plan for concentrated business management and more extended supervision. Shortly after there intervened an investigation of the state charitable institutions conducted by a committee of the House of Representatives of the Forty-fifth General Assembly. As the result of the report of this investigating committee, the house, in a hold-over session, in May, 1908, passed a Board of Control bill, eliminating the Board of Charities from the state service. The senate, however, refused to consider the measure, on the ground that it was hasty legislation on a very important matter. It authorized the appointment of a committee to investigate the entire subject and report to the next General Assembly, sitting in January, 1909.

The investigation made by the house committee was the basis of a furious primary campaign in August, 1908. Governor Deneen was a candidate before the primaries and won the nomination. The charities again were the leading issue of the campaign preceding the election in November, 1908. Governor Deneen was re-elected, a notable achievement in the political annals of Illinois.

The political phases of the situation having been thus swept aside, the president of the Board of Charities appointed twenty-three leading men in commerce, finance, medicine, law, and applied philanthropy to advise the board regarding a reasonable plan for concentrated management of the institutions. This committee, and also the senate committee, mentioned above, were provided by the State Board of Charities with a classified digest, made with great labor and at some expense, of the pertinent laws of Illinois, New York, Iowa, Wis-

consin, Minnesota, Indiana, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Kansas, Kentucky, Washington, Arizona, and Oklahoma, and the lunacy laws of Scotland.

The committee appointed by the Board of Charities also was provided with a tentative bill. This measure was materially improved by the committee and finally was introduced into the senate by the Honorable Logan Hay of Springfield, chairman of the senate committee on charitable, penal and reformatory institutions, who was the militant champion of advanced ideas of administration during the entire legislative session. There also were introduced bills representing the views of others as to the proper method of reorganizing the charities. These measures in many respects were alike. All sought a central system of purchase. All included under one board the seventeen charitable institutions and the two prisons and the reformatory. I shall not analyze the points of difference here, although that work has been done minutely. The senate committee on charitable, penal and reformatory institutions reported out favorably a committee bill, which conformed almost wholly to the bill prepared by the State Board of Charities with the help of the citizens' committee. The board endorsed the committee bill. When this measure came out into the open senate for debate its leading features were as follows:

1. The appointment of a Board of Administration for good behavior composed of one alienist, one penologist, one person experienced in general charities and the care of delinquent, dependent and neglected children, one fiscal supervisor, and one member designated in the appointment as the president.
2. The appointment of a Charities and Correction Commission which was to be the reincarnation of the State Board of Charities with all its administrative and quasi-administrative functions shorn away, leaving a purely visitorial, inquisitorial and recommending board.
3. The inclusion of the two prisons and the reformatory with the charitable institutions under one board.
4. The purchase of all supplies by the one Board of Administration.
5. All of the modern approved ideas that had been tried out successfully in other states in the care and treatment of their wards.

The senate at once split into divisions. Vigorous warfare was made on some of the features of the bill. First, an attempt

was made to eliminate the prisons and the reformatory. It failed. Upon a motion to reconsider, however, this attack was renewed. It succeeded. The prisons and the reformatory were eliminated. The qualifications of members of the Board of Administration were attacked. The attack succeeded. The amendment specified five members without qualifications, except that one of the five should be designated the president. The tenure for good behavior was assailed. A four-year term replaced it. The salaries, which had been placed at $7,500 per annum for each member of the Board of Administration, were reduced to $5,000. The Board of Administration, it was specified, should not have more than three of its members affiliated with the same political party.

In cutting out the qualifications, those for the fiscal supervisor were eliminated. This left the bill crippled in that a careful and comprehensive statement of the duties of the fiscal supervisor remained therein, but no fiscal supervisor was created to execute them.

In this amended form the bill went to the house, whose organization was antagonistic to the organization of the senate. There the bill slept. Its friends feared there never would be an awakening. However, there was an awakening. It came three days before the date scheduled for the final adjournment. Conference committees were appointed unofficially. They met at once. They drafted a bill based upon the senate bill with certain concessions to the State Board of Charities, which had repudiated publicly the amended bill as it passed the senate. The conferees unanimously reported out this bill, after the usual parliamentary procedure, and it passed both houses. However, in the early hours of a Sunday morning, May 30, 1909, a motion was made in the senate to reconsider. This motion was in the interest of the local treasurers and the small merchants who saw a loss of business and political prestige in the centralization of the monies of the state in the state treasury and in the concentration of purchases in a central board. However, upon representations by the State Board of Charities that it would accept the bill as a compromise, because, while it did not contain all the features of the Board of Charities bill, it contained many invaluable features, the sena-

tor who moved to reconsider withdrew his motion and the bill went to the governor's desk.

The new law presents no untried experiments, but a combination of features that have been tried with success in other states. A digest of the important provisions of the new law follows:

ADMINISTRATION AND INSPECTION

1. The act provides a centralized system of administration for the seventeen state charitable institutions, by a Board of Administration, and a separate system of inspection, criticism and recommendation, by a Charities Commission.

BOARD OF ADMINISTRATION

2. The important features relating to the Board of Administration are:

A. **Number.** (Sec. 4A.) Five members.

B. **Qualifications.** (Sec. 4A.) "One person appointed on the board shall be qualified by experience to advise the board regarding the care and treatment of the insane, feeble-minded and epileptic. One person appointed on the board shall be, and shall be designated in the appointment as, the president, who shall be the executive officer of the board * * *. The remaining three members of the board shall be reputable citizens." Not more than three appointees shall belong to or be affiliated with the same political party. Sec. 4C provides that the board shall complete its organization by electing one member of the board to be the fiscal supervisor and one member of the board to be the secretary of the board.

C. **President.** (Sec. 4A.) Provides that "from time to time the governor shall designate the member of the board who shall be its president.

D. **Time of Appointment.** (Sec. 4A.) Within thirty days after July 1, 1909.

E. **Term of Office.** (Sec. 4A.) Six year overlapping terms.

F. **Removal.** (Sec. 4B.) The governor has power to remove any member at any time "for incompetency, neglect of duty, or malfeasance in office."

G. **Salary Expenses.** (Sec. 4D.) Each member $6,000 per annum and actual expenses.

H. **Powers and Duties.** (Sec. 4F.) This division of section 4 has twelve paragraphs which vest in the Board of Administration all administrative powers possessed under the old law by boards of trustees and commissioners of the state charitable institutions and by the State Board of Charities, a little amplified in some minor particulars.

I. **Fiscal Supervisor.** (Sec. 13.) This member of the board has charge, under the supervision and direction of the board, of all of the business interests of the institutions. Section 13 has seven specific paragraphs giving his general powers and duties. His service and the collateral service of institution superintendents are detailed in sections 15 and 16. The fiscal machinery, aside from appropriations. discussed elsewhere in this paper, is as follows: (Sec. 15.) The fiscal supervisor calls the superintend-

ents to a meeting with a committee appointed by the board. At this meeting supplies are classified and requirements of the institutions are estimated so as to provide for practical and economical purchase. This assemblage is the Board of Joint Estimate, which is authorized to provide for the purchase of supplies in large quantities on contracts for periods not exceeding fifteen months from the date of the contract. The Board of Joint Estimate annually elects from among its members two persons (that is, superintendents or their accredited representatives) to serve with the fiscal supervisor as a standing purchasing committee to execute the purchases. Competitive bidding and the wide advertising of proposals are provided. Limited power is given to purchase supplies for emergencies. The state food commissioner is required to co-operate in making such tests as are necessary to determine the quality, strength or purity of food supplies. Supplies and materials produced in Illinois are preferred to articles from the outside, provided such preference shall not be made at the expense of the state. Section 16 provides the machinery for estimates of institution expenses and their review by the fiscal supervisor, but with right of appeal to the Board of Administration. Section 13 (5) provides emergency repairs of broken equipment, by purchase in open market, if the governor approves. Sec. 13 (6) provides that the fiscal supervisor shall "arrange for the interchange of farm products and other products between and among the various institutions."

J. **State Treasurer.** The state treasurer supersedes existing local treasurers and the superintendents are made institution treasurers for salary funds and small contingent funds. (Sec. 17.)

K. **Appropriations.** The salaries of the board (Sec. 4D) come out of the appropriation for statutory salaries. The funds appropriated to the several institutions and to the State Board of Charities by the Forty-sixth General Assembly (Sec. 4F, paragraph 3) which remain unexpended on January 1, 1910, are made payable as follows: All unexpended appropriations for the institutions are made payable to the Board of Administration; all appropriations (unexpended) to the State Board of Charities for the Department of Visitation of Children are made payable to the Board of Administration; and all unexpended appropriations to the State Board of Charities for other purposes than for the Department of Visitation of Children are made payable to the new Charities Commission, which will be hereinafter described. The ordinary appropriations (Sec. 4F, paragraph 3, and Sec. 14) are lumped into one sum to be used by the Board of Administration according to the needs of such institutions respectively. The purpose of this is to avoid the evils of institution surpluses and deficits. Appropriations for maintenance (Sec. 14) are based upon an average per capita allowance for the actual population and estimated increase. The maintenance and special appropriations are tabulated and submitted to the Governor and, as approved by the governor, are submitted to the General Assembly. Section 35 provides $30,400 per annum for the salaries of employes and expenses incurred in the office of the Board of Administration for the two years, July 1, 1909, to June 30, 1911.

THE CHARITIES COMMISSION

3. The important features relating to the Charities Commission are:

A. **Number.** (Sec. 5A.) Five members.

B. **Qualifications.** (Sec. 5A,) Not more than three shall belong to the same political party.

C. **Term of Office.** (Sec. 5A.) Five years overlapping.

D. **Removal.** Not mentioned in bill but provided in consituation (Article 5, Sec. 12). For incompetency, neglect of duty, or malfeasance in office.

E. **Expenses.** (Sec. 5D.) No compensation is paid, but actual traveling expenses are allowed.

F. **Duties.** (Sec. 5B.) The investigation of the whole system of public charitable institutions of the state, jails and almshouses and every activity of the Board of Administration.

G. Note—This board succeeds the present State Board of Charities, taking up, however, only its visitorial, critical and recommending power. Appointment to be made (Sec. 5A) within thirty days after January 1, 1910.

H. **Visitors.** (Secs. 7A, B and C.) Three visitors, one to be a woman, are provided for each state charitable institution. These Boards of Visitors are dependencies on the Charities Commission and must make regular reports to said commission. Visitors are not salaried, but their expenses are paid.

I. County Auxiliary boards are retained for almshouse and jail inspections, as provided in an old law. They are dependencies of the Charities Commission.

WHEN ACT GOES INTO EFFECT

4. Section 36 provides that Sections 4A, B, C, D and E, referring respectively to the appointment, removal, organization and salary and expenses of the Board of Administration, and also Section 35, referring to the appropriation for office expenses of the Board of Administration, go into effect on July 1, 1909. All other sections of the act go into effect January 1, 1910. The purpose of this is to give the new Board of Administration ample time to prepare the details of its service and assemble an office force so that the work can be undertaken on January 1, 1910, with the least possible friction and embarrassment. The present status regarding the institutions and the State Board of Charities, therefore, will continue until January 1, 1910.

MISCELLANEOUS FEATURES

5. Among the miscellaneous features are the following:

A. **Institution Names.** The names of all the institutions for the insane (Sec. 3) are changed to the name of the city where the institution is located and the word "insane" is eliminated from the title. For instance, the present Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Kankakee shall be known and designated under this act as "The Kankakee State Hospital." The Illinois Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, standing apart from the insane group in this instance, is renamed "The Lincoln State School and Colony."

B. **Reports to Governor.** Annual reports of the Board of Administration (Sec. 4H) and of the Charities Commission (Sec. 5E) are to be made to the governor not later than October 15th of each year.

C. **Certification of Expenses.** Bills for traveling expenses (Sec. 8) of members of the various boards and of employes must be itemized and made out on blanks as prescribed by the institution and department auditor. This blank is enacted into the law.

D. **Interest in Contracts.** Section 10 provides that no member of any board or any officer, agent, or employe shall be inter-

ested in any contract for the state institutions. Any violation is punishable by a fine of not more than double the amount of the contract or imprisonment for from one to three years.

E. **Psychopathic Institute.** Section 9 establishes firmly the psychopathic institute and provides for the employment of a director and psychologist and other employes.

F. **Civil Service.** Section 11 puts all employes of both boards and of all of the institutions, except the superintendents, under civil service.

G. **Bonded Employes.** Section 18 requires surety bonds from the fiscal supervisor, each managing officer, steward, store keeper or any other state officer or employe under the jurisdiction of the Board of Administration in penal sums to be determined by the board. The cost of the bonds shall be paid by the state out of funds appropriated to the board.

H. **Taking Over Dunning.** Section 20 is a codification of the vital parts of the act of 1907, being "An act to promote the care and curative treatment of the insane. Approved June 4, 1907. In force July 1, 1907." By suggestion of the attorney-general there is an alteration in that part of this act which removes an ambiguity by specifying that the county board desiring to transfer its insane institution to the state shall pass a resolution, and spread such resolution upon the records, making application to the governor to transfer the property and that a certified copy of such resolution shall be sent to the governor. The attorney-general felt that some disgruntled taxpayer might tie up such transfer on the ambiguous language in the act of 1907.

I. **Feeble-minded in Almshouses.** Section 20 provides that feeble-minded women and children in almshouses shall be transferred to the Lincoln State School and Colony when there is sufficient room provided for them.

J. **Boarding Out of Insane Patients.** Section 26 provides for the boarding out of insane patients in private families.

K. **After Care of the Insane.** Section 27 provides for the supervision of cured or improved insane after their discharge or parole from state hospitals.

L. **Private Insane Hospitals.** Section 28 provides for the inspection and licensing of private hospitals for mental and nervous cases by the Board of Administration and provides a penalty of a fine of $50 to $1,000, or imprisonment not exceeding six months, or both, for persons who keep patients contrary to their will in a private institution not licensed by the Board of Administration.

M. **Occupation for Inmates.** Section 29 provides for a coordination of the occupation of inmates in the various state charitable institutions.

N. **State Conferences.** Section 31 provides that officers of state, county, and municipal charitable institutions and officials responsible for the administration of public funds for the relief or maintenance of the poor and boards of institution visitors and county visitors may attend conferences of the State Conference of Charities and Correction at the expense of the boards whom they represent, provided they have a certificate from the secretary of the Charities Commission that they were in actual attendance upon the sessions of the said Conference of Charities and Correction.

O. **Investigations.** Sections 33 and 34 give aosolute power to the Board of Administration and Charities Commission to make investigations and to compel testimony of witnesses.

P. **Board Conferences.** Section 4J provides for at least annual

conferences of the Board of Administration, the Charities Commission and institution superintendents to consider in detail all questions relating to the treatment and care of the insane, epileptic, feeble-minded, delinquents, the poor and other wards of the state and all questions of management and improvement of institutions caring for such wards.

Q. Section 4F 8 provides that on complaint in writing of at least two reputable citizens the Board of Administration may visit and inspect any charitable society, institution or association which appeals to the public for aid, or is supported by trust funds; and shall report to the governor upon its efficiency, economy and usefulness.

R. Section 32 provides that no county, city or village shall erect, add to or remodel a jail, almshouse, infirmary, prison, house of correction or workhouse without first submitting plans and specifications therefor to the Board of Administration for its criticism and suggestions for the improvement of the same.

S. Section 4F 6 imposes upon the Board of Administration the duty of investigating and inspecting outdoor poor relief, almshouses, children's home finding societies, orphanages and lying-in hospitals.

Those who have been through the campaign which resulted in the enactment of this law feel that, considering all factors, it is an excellent compromise measure and that time and education will bring about further improvement. It provides working machinery to complete, as soon as practicable, the program of Governor Deneen, already well advanced, "to place the charitable institutions of Illinois on as high a level as that occupied by any in this country or elsewhere."

In closing I desire to express the thanks of the framers of the new Illinois charities law to twenty-two experts outside our state, who gave valuable suggestions during the formative period of the measure; and to newspaper editors, many politicians and other friends at home, who remained true during periods of stress, whose eyes ever saw and whose pens and tongues ever defended our ideal.

PUBLICITY AND INFORMATION AS FUNCTIONS OF CHARITABLE BOARDS

BY HOWARD S. BRAUCHER, PORTLAND, MAINE

The small attendance at the section meetings of the Committee on the Supervision of Charities at the Richmond Conference raised the question whether those engaged in other

lines of work appreciate the services rendered our commonwealths by state boards of charities. A speaker from Maine is qualified to speak of their great value because he sees what is lost by their absence. Our leaders believe a State Board of Charities and Correction to be an indispensable tool in the charitable workshop. They have hoped for a state board which should lead in creating the right kind of public sentiment, in securing new institutions in the order of their greatest need, in still further developing the cooperative spirit, in quickening in the most responsible citizens the desire to give of their time and service to strengthen the philanthropic work of the state, in arousing the various parts of the state to more efficient work, in interpreting to the people the work which our various institutions are trying to do, in securing stronger popular support of this work and in furnishing a source to which we could all turn for inspiration and advice in improving the methods of our local institution or organization. A state board has been desired which should be a positive constructive force for social progress, energizing the charitable work of the state. Often a community lacks effective social expression because its stores of sympathy, energy, and knowledge are locked up in treasury vaults and are never allowed to get into general circulation. It is one function of a state board through its publicity to keep enough of this social coin in circulation to enable the state to properly carry on its social business. When a state board, through a wisely planned news service, releases the stored funds of knowledge on human problems the apathy of the public on social reform will disappear.

If the public can be given the facts, favorable and unfavorable, regarding social experiments elsewhere the results can safely be left with the people. Any state can learn much from the mistakes of other states. A large endowment left in Pennsylvania for a type of children's work for which adequate provision had already been made is a good news item to warn benevolently disposed individuals of one's own state against similar mistakes by calling attention to the great needs yet unmet.

Now that private charities of various kinds are desiring

the supervision of a state board, is there not a large opportunity for standardizing the work of such organizations and institutions within the state? Those of us who want to come under the supervision of a state board want sympathetic leadership into finer and more thorough and more constructive work. In my opinion all associated charities would gain much by the right kind of visitation by a state board. The carrying of information from one institution to another is field work similar to that done by the traveling secretaries in movements like that of the Young Men's Christian Association. The imparting of a little knowledge of what is done elsewhere has often transformed a purely relief organization into an efficient social service association. Often the pressure of work upon a charitable society is so great and its workers so few that its problem is like that of Sheridan in one of his campaigns, where his task was to plan his marches so skilfully as to make each thousand of his men equal to double that number of the enemy. Yet whatever the pressure, high standards will only be reached as attention is repeatedly called to them by showing how one has achieved in this direction and another in that. Charitable workers, being only human, are all too ready to be satisfied with achievements already made and become so near-sighted that they do not see the goal and notice how great a distance yet intervenes. To maintain sympathetically a healthy attitude of discontent is to keep alive the only atmosphere which makes progress possible and prevents the charity from becoming a living corpse. The possibilities of a state board as a source of information and a center of publicity have been greatly increased by the awakened interest in all social problems. As in other forms of social work, the limits are those of the men in charge of it.

In stimulating the work of different sections of our country and in promoting the publicity which all charitable workers must feel our social movement now needs, it would be hard to conceive of any more helpful agency than a national bureau of charities which should be to the nation what the state board is to the state and the associated charities is to the city. Perhaps the question can best be considered by

taking one state and considering the need of a national bureau of charities as felt in the State of Maine.

Maine has felt keenly for the last four years the need of a national bureau of charities to which she could turn for reliable information on various social problems. In the first place when a demand arose for the creation of a state board of charities and correction, nowhere in the proceedings of the National Conference of Charities or in other literature could there be found a collection of the definite laws under which the various state boards of charities and correction were working, nor any report summing up and comparing the achievements of the various boards. It was necessary to send letters to the various state boards asking for copies of the laws under which they worked, and for copies of their published reports. Certain information not found in these reports had to be obtained by additional letters. It was necessary to read the volumes of the National Conference and many other books and pamphlets. When all the material had been digested and a bill prepared adapted to the Maine situation, this bill in turn had to be sent to quite a number of experts for their opinion regarding it. When their valuable suggestions had been embodied and the full report presented, showing what state boards had accomplished, this report carried nothing like the weight which would have attached to a government publication setting forth these facts, coming from a bureau of charities.

If Maine had desired instead to create a state bureau of labor, she could have obtained immediately from the National Bureau of Labor a bulletin giving the laws under which these bureaus work and a comprehensive statement of what they have accomplished, and this official information would be much more effective than any private investigation.

The various workers to whom Maine wrote were all busy with their own tasks. Yet at the same time that Maine was writing them Virginia, Oklahoma and other states were exacting the same missionary service. The valuable time of these workers was taken in answering five or six similar inquiries when a single report to a national bureau of charities would have sufficed. The same bulletin prepared by the na-

tional bureau would have answered the questions of Maine, Virginia, Oklahoma and the other states which were trying to form a plan for their state charities. At the same time one worker in the National Bureau could have gathered the material from the various states and edited it saving the laborious activity of the five busy people who were the same year duplicating each other's work.

When Maine wished to enact an efficient law for the protection of her children from cruelty and neglect, again it was necessary to send out inquiries to find out what laws other states had found satisfactory. A national bureau of charities would naturally prepare a bulletin giving a comparative review of these laws and then from year to year a review of the legislative enactments along this line during each twelve months. Such a publication would not only aid those states in which the legislation for children is not well advanced but would help to standardize the work by exchange of ideas between the more advanced states.

Four years ago Portland made a careful investigation of the number of her families which were receiving material relief. She found that about fifteen hundred different families were being aided by the overseers of the poor, the general relief societies, the special relief societies, the churches and by individuals in a city with a population of about sixty thousand people, or twelve thousand families. This seemed to be a large proportion of the population but there was no basis of exact comparison of Portland with other cities. A national bureau of charities could by investigation afford us an authoritative idea of what at the present stage of human progress in our country is the normal amount of dependency in an average American city in an average year. As no such bureau was in existence the various Associated Charities' secretaries, carrying an impossible amount of work, groaned aloud one morning as they opened their mail and found another schedule to be filled out to help in a Portland investigation. Many cities, however, had no reports from their churches as to how many families received help from this source. In some cities several relief societies did not report. So after all our labors it was impossible to obtain enough facts to make the comparison at all

accurate. An investigator sent to some of these cities would probably have brought home to them the lack of co-operation existing, and this might have resulted in such a change that thereafter the cities would have some fairly accurate idea, not only of the number of families helped through the Associated Charities, but of all the families receiving help within the year in their city. The result of the study, however, was to show our city that a much larger proportion of families had been receiving assistance than was normal, and the percentage has in the last four years been reduced about one-half, this comparative study, imperfect as it was, helping to show citizens the unnatural condition which was existing and the necessity of close co-operative work. Such an investigation cannot properly be carried on except by a trained investigator who shall go from city to city and carefully and painfully gather the figures in each to make sure that all the figures rest on the same basis. It is properly the task of a national bureau of charities. Many careful investigations of this kind are imperatively needed and would accomplish very definite practical results in raising standards and improving conditions.

The Portland Associated Charities wished to know how far charitable woodyards and workrooms had been found helpful in our various cities and how much of an annual deficit such woodyards and workrooms showed. Brooklyn, Cincinnati and other cities were again called upon to furnish the detailed facts and figures required. Then the secretary was compelled to leave his busy world and pore over the various reports until he could present a respectable report as to how various cities were meeting this problem.

During the closing days of the last Maine legislature a bill was introduced providing for a single Juvenile Court judge to travel over the State of Maine hearing all the children's cases. The legislature was wise enough, despite the unanimously favorable report of the committee in charge of the bill, to lay the whole question over for two years, while the information should be gathered which ought to be in a bulletin of a national bureau of charities on Juvenile Courts.

A bill providing that county commissioners in the various counties may appoint probation officers was passed by the Maine

state legislature despite the protest of the Maine State Prison Association and many of the friends of probation. Cumberland county has had its probation officer appointed by the judge and this provision seems much wiser. However, the splendid report of the New York State Probation Commission had not yet been received and there was no authoritative compendium of the laws and the best probation experience ready at hand. A national bureau of charities bulletin would have been a friend at hand in the time of need.

Several men deserted their families in Maine because the trustee laws permitted their entire wages to be taken week after week for debt, leaving nothing for their families. This law was changed last February, but several citizens were compelled to take the time and to incur the expense incident to corresponding with the different states to obtain their laws on this subject because there was no bulletin of a national bureau of charities.

Why are some children in Maine still condemned to lives of pauperism by being left during their impressionable years in the almshouses? Because when the legislature considered this question last winter there were no bulletins of a national bureau of charities dealing with this question to place in the hands of the members of the legislature.

A Portland commission is preparing a law to prevent the building of such tenements as have disgraced other localities and have greatly needed a bulletin comparing the housing laws of cities of but sixty thousand people and showing the results achieved.

One heaves a sigh of relief when one comes to the field of child labor legislation. Not only are the laws readily available through the National Child Labor Committee, but here is a model law and a comparative table of the conditions in the various states.

Similarly, when Maine found that further provision must be made for caring for dependent children, she found it a great relief to turn to Homer Folk's book and find so much information ready at hand. Yet even in this field there is much room yet uncovered and a national bureau would here have been of help to Maine.

Too much cannot be said in praise of the splendid work done

by William H. Baldwin of Washington in compiling his book on Family Desertion and Non-Support Laws. Perhaps it is safe to say that no social legislation passed in Maine in the last four years was more easily secured than the passage of a bill practically identical with the model law suggested by Mr. Baldwin. All the laws of the various states were at hand in his volume, arranged in a masterly way, and the conditions set forth so clearly that a legislator though inexperienced could not err therein. It is hard to tell how much work has been saved various cities by this splendid book, how many errors in legislation have been prevented, and how much further along on the road to solution this problem is because of the admirable work of Mr. Baldwin and the fact that we have this reliable information in such shape that it can readily be used.

If each of the problems which have been mentioned had received the same painstaking treatment, if we had a bulletin on each of them available, our social progress would be made much more sure and rapid. However, the problems indicated are only a few of the immediate problems thrust upon a group of workers in one city of the United States in a period of four years. The investigation conducted by Miss Mary E. Richmond of the best way of securing money for the relief of special families has been of help to all Associated Charities workers and has saved them much time, as have special bulletins prepared by the Field Department of Charities and the Commons on similar problems.

The number of problems coming up is so great that it would be extremely difficult to limit the work of the bureau to what could be done well. The transportation of needy families and individuals from city to city and from state to state, after care of the insane, the increase in crime in times of industrial depression, the relation of poverty to crime, the feeding of school children, free eye glasses for school children, old age pensions, the socializing of the public school, an education that shall lessen dependency, healthy recreation and the reduction of crime, and many, many more subjects at once present themselves.

Bulletins prepared by other departments could undoubtedly be used by a bureau of charities in answering certain inquiries. The articles on cost of living, housing of the working people by

employers, public baths in the United States, the British workman's compensation acts, free public employment offices, the unemployed in European countries, industrial accidents, charity relief and wage earnings, published in the bulletins of the Bureau of Labor could all be utilized in answering inquiries addressed to the Bureau of Charities. The bureau would be in touch with investigations on all related subjects wherever made, and duplication of work would be avoided, while all investigations would receive greater publicity.

Throughout the whole range of social activity there is the same need that the experiences of cities and states shall be reduced to available form. We have been so busy making history in social work that we have not stopped to conserve what has already been gained before pressing on to further activity. For years a man will labor as the dean of the children's work of a great city like Boston and work out principles of great value. Some national bureau should see to it that the permanent element in those experiences and the principles achieved are reduced to writing as a permanent contribution to social advance. Judge Mack and Judge Lindsey and others have each their contribution to record. If any man is so busy as to be unable to spare the time for rendering the more permanent service of leaving his experience so that others may begin where he left off, a trained investigator should play the Boswell and give us the record.

The pressure upon active workers is such that it is extremely difficult for them to find the time for the kind of investigations needed. The reports along various lines which are imperatively needed, and the material for the study of which is ready at hand, will not be published until a group of investigators under skilled direction are free to undertake the task. Social investigations cannot be made once for each fifty years. Each year sees many experiments tried in Juvenile Court work, in probation, in the care of the insane. Every part of the country ought to have at once the knowledge why such experiments were successes or failures. The facts along any one line ought to be brought together in a single bulletin for ready reference, for those who must use the facts are busy men.

Not only are there particular subjects needing study by a

national bureau; there are also special fields which will abundantly repay careful attention. We have just had a survey of Pittsburgh. A study of the social activity of Boston, or of Cambridge, or of Baltimore might prove an object lesson to us on the other side as to the possibilities of a community co-operating in social achievements and in the maintenance of high standards of efficiency.

We have been content that each of us should go his individual way, making his own individual investigations, when we would have saved time in the end to have halted our busy activity long enough to unite in securing a national bureau of charities which should serve all of us and with which we should all co-operate.

The need of the national bureau as a source of information has been discussed. The bureau is also needed as an agency for publicity. Few things would more stimulate publicity than a wisely conducted bureau combining the scientific attitude with a living vital presentation of social problems. The appearance of a bulletin of the Department of Labor is the signal for hundreds of editorials over our country. No bulletins deal with problems of greater human interest than those which would be treated by this new bureau. No institution has a greater popular influence today than the daily newspaper. He who can influence the writing of the news items along social lines and thus form social public opinion has a greater opportunity than any other to influence the masses and to form the social future. Reliable facts from an authoritative source dealing with human life itself can remain scientific and yet have news value and command public attention. The facts regarding poverty and dependency need a wider circulation. When once the people know, boys of sixteen will no longer be schooled in crime at the county jail, able-bodied law breakers will not be trained at public expense in habits of idleness; feeble-minded women will not be permitted to multiply imbecility. The attempts at a constructive program of social advance need wider publicity. Has not the time been reached when the great need is the fullest publicity for the social movement, that all may join in it and all may share in it, that it may be much more completely democratized?

How much of poverty we have with us we cannot tell. How

much of galling dependency, of abject failure, have we in normal times of industrial prosperity? There are no available figures to even hint at the facts, but a national bureau could give us much more nearly accurate information by the study of certain selected registration areas. If only the tragedy of dependency and the amount of it were realized by the public as it is known by those workers who have listened to the tales of wreck and have felt the accumulated load of a city's misery, half of our problem would be solved. The national bureau would be the most potent factor in giving to the public information so sane and so trustworthy as to bring the truth home. Tables of statistics are not enough. There must be a living nonpartisan interpretation of them.

While admitting the need of some agency which shall perform the duties suggested, some may feel that the desired results can best be achieved by a national committee independent of the government, or by the Russell Sage Foundation. The publication of these facts relating to social problems is, however, one of the things which should be a government function, which should have the moral support of the government. When any man desires certain information regarding education, Indian affairs, the weather, animals, soil, forests, bugs, roads, plants, fishes, labor, he can turn directly to a department of his government and obtain what he desires. Social work needs the dignity and the recognition which the establishment of a bureau of charities will give. In no committee, however formed, would the entire country have such confidence as in a department of the government. The work done will not reach nearly the same number of individuals until the distribution of the reports of investigations is in the hands of a national bureau known to all the workers in all parts of the country.

The movement for a national bureau of charities is not a new one. At Washington in 1901 a committee composed of William W. Folwell, Fred H. Wines and Robert W. Hebberd reported unanimously in favor of the creation of such a bureau and Dr. Edward T. Devine offered the following resolution: "Resolved, That the president of this Conference be instructed to appoint a committee of three to take steps to secure the creation of a national bureau of charities and correction." Mr. John M.

Glenn was appointed chairman of this committee and reported the following year that a bill had been introduced which fell considerably short of what they would like to have but seemed to go as far as it was practicable to go at that time. This bill gave the director of the census power to collect statistics and other facts regarding charitable and correctional work.

At the present time the movement for the creation of a children's bureau has gained such headway that all strength should be concentrated on its creation. However, it is the merest truism to repeat that we can never work for the child without working for the child's family—for the home. The home must be the unit. Many, however, can be appealed to on the ground of the child who would not give their support to secure a bureau to prevent race deterioration and keep the race vitally strong. The creation of the children's bureau should, however, be only the entering wedge for the establishment of a bureau of charities which should cover the whole social field. The name of this bureau is not so important but its functions should be so extended as to make it a source of information and publicity for the whole field of social work.

Hon. Andrew J. Peters is authority for the statement that the Bureau of Animal Industry last year expended $301,415 for the eradication of scabies in sheep, $50,000 for the inspection of southern cattle. For the eradication of ticks $250,000 was appropriated. We appropriated last year for the investigation of insects injurious to vegetables, fruits, tobacco, and field crops and so forth, $158,800, and $434,960 for the Bureau of Entomology. The total asked for the Children's Bureau is $51,820.

At the congressional hearing the heads of the departments of labor, education, and the census testified that the creation of a children's bureau would not duplicate their work. Surely the diffusion of information as to methods of making weaker citizens strong and keeping the strong from becoming weak is as much an opportunity for our national government as the maintenance of the army and navy and our coast defenses as a protection from external dangers. It was stated at Richmond in 1908 that the cost of charitable and correctional institutions within the state of Ohio was one-third the cost of the public schools. In one city the annual budgets of the charitable and correctional

institutions, including the hospitals, is nearly equal to the expense of maintaining the schools. From the purely financial side it is in our interest as the people of the whole United States to see that the vast expenditure of money shall produce the most efficient results. From the military view the United States government is interested in preventing race deterioration such as the breaking out of war has shown other countries to have suffered, in preventing such race demoralization as grew up in England before the reform of the poor laws. There can be no conservation of our natural resources unless our greatest natural resource, the race itself, is protected, and this purpose deserves the continuous attention of our government through a children's bureau which shall ultimately become a bureau for all social work—a national center for information and publicity.

LABORATORIES FOR SOCIAL INVESTIGATION

BY H. W. CHARLES, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE KANSAS INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, TOPEKA.

The most important problem that any commonwealth deals with is the care of its wards in institutions for the insane, defective and criminal classes. The greatest drain upon the treasury of the state is to provide for the care of these unfortunates. Whatever advancement we have made in the care, treatment and cure of these classes has been accompanied by costly experimentation. It is a matter of common knowledge that a high-minded enthusiasm, generated by a sincere love for humanity, has set in motion movements for the betterment of social conditions, or for curing social ills, only to realize, after many disappointing failures, that, worthy as the movements were, failure was inevitable because of a fatal misapprehension of the real problem.

Novices are entering the field, only to repeat the mistakes of others; all at an enormous waste of time and treasure, which not only fails to produce results but encourages a distrust in the public mind regarding all remedial effort. Substantial advancement may be made even by such sincere but ill-directed effort.

Worthy motives have not been lacking, but the results obtained are out of proportion to the cost. Such experimentation has been duplicated year after year, and yet crime, pauperism and social disease are not responding to the remedial measures. Remedies proposed will be problematical until we are willing to employ the same painstaking, patient, scientific methods that we employ in other lines of investigation.

It seems to me that a rational, scientific and uniform system for study and observation in the various lines of research and investigation should appeal strongly to those engaged in the solution of these problems.

The average American household wastes more than it consumes. The economic condition of this household will be relieved by increasing the income and thus adding to the resources of the household, or by saving what is now wasted. As to which remedy affords the best source of relief there is no question.

The western world with its prodigious wealth is disposed to ignore the waste in its philanthropic household and seek relief by increasing its income. In pursuing this policy vast contributions have been made for advancing philanthropic measures, both from the public treasury and private resources.

The material and professional waste that accompanies the administration of the charitable and correctional affairs of the commonwealth in alleviating the conditions induced by the increasing number of its wards, will be appreciably diminished when men are intelligently advised in reference to the causes of the waste. This is not a question of sentiment, but of economics. It is a plain business proposition. It holds good in all instances where large sums of money are disbursed, that intelligence respecting the conditions toward which the expenditure is directed is worth all it costs.

This holds good in all public expenditures, but it is especially true in placing that which is meant to alleviate the condition or properly care for the wards of the states. In the careful, persistent, intelligent study of the causes which render these expenditures necessary an enormous waste will be avoided.

Then, purely as a business proposition—I say nothing of

the higher, more worthy, altruistic motives—the state will do well not only to encourage, but should itself take the lead in promoting the acquisition of specific, authoritative information regarding the unsolved social and humanitarian problems that are, with increasing persistence, challenging the best thought of every progressive nation, and placing upon these nations the ever-growing moral and economic burden.

To the end that the public shall be able to get the information, or that the public shall be led to a keener appreciation of the value of such information, every institution dealing with the dependent, defective or delinquent classes should become a laboratory, as it were, for the study of the causes of the pathological conditions with which it deals.

We already know something of the causes of this social waste, but the fact that it is increasing shows us that we do not know as much as we should. The state can well afford to encourage in every way the men who are competent to do this work.

Insanity, we are told, is increasing at an alarming rate in many, if not all, of the states in the Union. Every hospital for the insane should become a laboratory for the intelligent gathering of unequivocal data upon a basis that will insure uniformity in all the institutions, to the end that there may be gathered, in the course of time, extensive and specific data to be used in determining the causes and from that the nature of the treatment of insanity.

An important qualification of the collection of this data is that it be directed by the best-advised authorities, and that it be collected with scrupulous fidelity. It is not enough to say that institutions are already doing such work. Such efforts as have been made have been sporadic, and have not been centralized. It is the union of effort involving a central directive head that gives importance and value to statistical data.

What has been said of the hospitals for the insane is true in equal degree, and probably with the assurance of even greater results, in the case of the feeble-minded. It is probably due to those dealing with this class of social weaklings

that there is more real scientific investigation directed toward them than toward any other class. The results are already apparent in the marked improvement in the methods of dealing with this class of unfortunates.

Even greater possibilities lie with institutions dealing with delinquents. Every individual committed to a correctional or penal institution should be the object of the most careful study. Many panaceas for crime have been proposed, and will be proposed, but the ultimate form of social therapeutics will be determined after patient, persistent and united effort in corrective, reformatory and penal institutions in the study of individual cases and the gathering of authentic data.

Crime, pauperism and social disease are daily placing in jeopardy the person and property of every citizen of the commonwealth. The application of remedies, unless the causes can be determined, is the most wasteful kind of philanthropy.

Reports from States

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, CHAIRMAN

It was the unanimous opinion of the members of the committee that it was advisable for this year, at least, to drop the census of institutions which has been attempted annually, for several years past, and to concentrate the work of the committee on a few points of special interest. The following subjects were chosen for special inquiry:

a. The extent to which the Statistical Methods recommended by recent Conferences have been adopted. These were: First, Statistics of State Institutions, recommended by the Conference of 1906; second, Statistics of Relief and Charity Organization Societies, recommended by the Conference of 1907; third, Statistics of Child-Helping Agencies, recommended by the Conference of 1908.

b. An inquiry into the need of Housing Reform and the degree to which efforts are being made in this direction.

c. An inquiry as to the system of Outdoor Relief, its division between state, county, township and city, the method of report and supervision (if any).

d. An inquiry as to the methods of Public Child-Helping as divided between the state and its minor political divisions, the extent to which public support is given to private agencies, the method of child placing, boarding out and after supervision.

e. An inquiry as to the care of Juvenile Delinquents, especially as to how much this is done by private institutions with complete or partial public support.

f. An inquiry as to the states that have adopted Juvenile Courts, either completely or partially, whether these courts deal with children merely dependent as well as those delinquent and incorrigible. The states in which adult contributory delinquency and contributory dependency are recognized and punished by the Juvenile Court. The method of appointment and pay of probation officers, etc.

g. An inquiry as to the use of the Probation System, juvenile or adult, and in states where probation is not used, a question as to the use of the method of suspended sentences.

h. An inquiry as to Prisons and Reformatories for Adults, especially as to methods of prison labor; also as to the use of workhouses, and labor of prisoners in jails and workhouses; also a question as to the partial support of dependent families from the earnings of prisoners.

i. An inquiry as to the care of Defectives and their support in institutions.

j. An inquiry with regard to State Conferences of Charities.

In addition to these inquiries on special subjects, the State Corresponding Secretaries were requested to report on New Developments, New Legislation concerning Charities and Correction, Felt Needs, and to offer any General Remarks.

Reports have been received from thirty-three states and territories and in most cases the questions have been intelligently answered. The report of the committee includes a brief statement from each state, followed by a condensed and classified statement of the answers to the special inquiries mentioned above.

ARKANSAS

PROF. J. H. REYNOLDS, FAYETTEVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No new developments, our problems are not yet acute enough to arouse sentiment.

CALIFORNIA

W. ALMONT GATES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The provision of buildings and equipment for the treatment of insane by electro-therapy and hydro-therapy at all the insane hospitals. The rebuilding of Agnew Insane Hospital on the cottage plan.

New Legislation

1. Changing name of the Home for the Feeble-Minded to "The Sonoma State Home."
2. A new Juvenile Court law, one of the best yet enacted.
3. A law permitting asexualization of certain inmates of insane hospitals, home for feeble-minded, and prisons.
4. Creating an industrial school for free education of dependent orphans over 14 years of age.
5. A tenement-house law.
6. Parole Board for each county.
7. Paroling prisoners serving county jail sentences.

General Remarks

Bills providing for the indeterminate sentence and creating a state reformatory did not pass.

COLORADO

C. E. HAGAR, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

Establishment of State Home and Training School for Mental Defectives.

Allowing all trusties outside the prison walls the same good time as is allowed those who work on the public highway.

Allowing paroled prisoners the same money, clothes and transportation as prisoners receiving their final discharge.

CONNECTICUT

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

The report for Connecticut appears in the Inquiries on Special Subjects.

DELAWARE

MRS. E. P. WARNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

People's Settlement will break ground for $50,000 building this month. Truant officer for public schools appointed. Three playgrounds operated by Park Commissioners, New Country Club and private parties, supervised by paid superintendents and volunteer service. One new bath house completed late last summer and another just being erected this year.

New Legislation

Child labor bill amended to forbid the labor of children under 14 years of age or under 16 years if unable to read and write intelligently and cipher to fractions. Consumers' League offers scholarships where needed; one out of five applications granted. Two police matrons to receive police pensions and voting power granted them for election of trustees of police pension fund. Two thousand dollars for Dover Aged Home. Anti-tuberculosis commission created and $15,000 appropriated for the work. Compulsory education bill amended for Wilmington to commit delinquents to industrial schools.

Felt Needs

Hospitals for infectious diseases. Juvenile Court. More playgrounds. Settlements and city hall.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

GEORGE S. WILSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Since the last report the new Tuberculosis Hospital has been opened, and it is already crowded in some departments. The maximum capacity is 120 patients. We have now over one

hundred patients and at times we have been obliged to deny admission to patients because of the crowded condition of some of the wards.

A special commission, appointed by the president of the United States to investigate the conditions of the jail, workhouse, etc., in the District of Columbia and make recommendations as to the future development of penal institutions for the District, submitted an exhaustive report, which was transmitted by the president to Congress. This report led to the passage of a law authorizing the purchase of two tracts of land, widely separated, of not less than 1,000 acres each, as sites for a reformatory and a workhouse respectively. Such tracts of land are not available in the District of Columbia and the act provides that the land may be purchased in Virginia or Maryland. This is probably the most important development in our penal and correctional system that has ever been recorded. A new and interesting feature involved in the scheme is the fact that it is proposed to take both the workhouse and the reformatory of the District into other jurisdictions, namely, into the state of Maryland or the state of Virginia. It is quite probable that one institution will be located in each of these states. There may be some interesting legal points arise as to the matter of police jurisdiction and the adjustment of relations as between the District of Columbia controlled by the United States on the one hand, and the states of Maryland and Virginia on the other.

New Legislation

A child labor law has been passed by Congress, but no appropriation was made for the salaries of the inspectors. Under the circumstances two policemen have been assigned to act as inspectors.

A law has been passed to provide for the registration of cases of tuberculosis, for the free examination of sputum and for the disinfection of infected premises.

A law has been passed providing for the license of private hospitals and asylums. It provides that all such institutions must secure a license. The enforcement of the law is placed in the hands of the health officer.

Felt Needs

A law providing for the probation of adults.
A psychopathic hospital.
A hospital for chronic and convalescent patients.
A school for feeble-minded.
Separate provision for epileptics who are now confined at the insane asylum.
A new municipal lodging house.
A hospital for inebriates.

GEORGIA

T. D. LONGINO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Initiatory steps were provided by the last legislature to establish a state tuberculosis hospital, funds being provided for the preliminary work looking to its establishment.

Felt Needs

A state board of charities; a general superintendent or secretary, whose duty it would be to examine all penal institutions, charitable institutions; jails and almshouses.

New Legislation

Efforts will be made before the next session of the state legislature to provide for a state bureau of supervision over the state benevolent institutions and the several county almshouses and requiring reports to this central bureau, thus systematizing the present lax mode of dealing with these institutions.

ILLINOIS

WILLIAM C. GRAVES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The general situation remains as during the last three years, Governor Deneen and the State Board of Charities being at work in gradually carrying out a program already outlined.

General Remarks

During the last twelve months the state has been through its first primary campaign, with the state charitable institutions as the chief issue, and through a general election, on the same issue. At both elections Governor Charles S. Deneen, backed by the State Board of Charities, won. The strife was particularly bitter. It followed an investigation of the state charitable, penal and correctional institutions by a committee of the house and an endeavor, successful in the house, to pass a board of control bill which eliminated the State Board of Charities. The senate refused to consider the house bill on the ground that it was hasty legislation on a very important question and appointed a special committee to study systems of administration and report to the next General Assembly, sitting in January, 1909. Three bills were introduced into the senate of this general assembly and one into the house looking to a new system of administration of the state charitable, penal and correctional institutions. All provided for centralized management. One abolished the State Board of Charities. One continued it with administrative powers in all except financial matters. The third continued it purely as a visitorial and critical body. The senate committee on charitable, penal and reformatory institutions merged these measures into a new one, which in brief contained all the newest ideas of administration and was constructed upon the following foundation:

1. Administration of the twenty state charitable, penal and correctional institutions by a salaried Board of Administration, composed of an alienist, a penologist, an expert in general charities, a business man and a president,

in touch with all the activities of the board; the members appointed by the Governor for good behavior, but removable by the Governor for cause.

2. Inspection, visitation, investigation and recommendation, covering the twenty institutions by a non-salaried board of seven members, appointed for seven years each by the Governor and not removable. Local institution visitors and county auxiliary boards, dependencies of the visitation board and the entire inquisitorial system separate from and not accountable to the system of administration outlined in one above.

At this writing the bill, before the senate, has been amended to make the term of members of the administration board four years each, to remove the specified qualifications, and to provide that no more than three members shall belong to the same political party. An attempt to remove the two prisons and the reformatory from the bill failed but it will be attempted again.*

Condensing the extensive recommendations of the State Board of Charities, aside from administration, they seek to bring about complete state care under the act of 1907, by making room in existing state hospitals for the insane still in county almshouses and the net normal increase of new cases for the next three years, by providing nurses' and attendants' homes and two colonies for insane epileptics. Appropriations are asked for land for a new state hospital for the insane, and for land for a colony for improvable epileptics. Recommendations for other departments of the service are of the same comprehensive character. These matters, at this writing, are pending before the legislature.

Under the authority of a new law Chicago is to have a tuberculosis sanatorium.

The Chicago Relief and Aid Society and the Chicago Bureau of Charities have been consolidated into the United Charities of Chicago.

Two modern psychopathic hospitals have been opened and two others are under construction. Under the supervision of the newly-created State Psychopathic Institute a uniform clinical service has been established in all our state hospitals for

*The bill passed and was approved by the Governor, two days before the Conference met.

the insane. Modern nursing service also has been established and, under the inspiration of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, the systematic education of attendants has begun with great benefit chiefly to the chronic insane patients.

The year has been one of great activity and stress. Space is not available to go further into detail.

INDIANA

MISS LAURA GREELY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

In private charities an interesting work has been begun by the Indianapolis Charity Organization Society on a tract of land adjoining the Fresh Air Mission near Fairview Park. Small cottages are being erected, which are furnished, rent free, to poor widows who have children to support. The work of construction is done under proper supervision by persons applying to the society for employment, the enterprise thus furnishing homes for homeless widows and work for unemployed men. Fairview Settlement, as it is called, is maintained throughout the year, the "fresh air" cottages being available in winter in addition to those erected especially for the widows. Twenty cottages have so far been erected in both the mission and the settlement. The funds came from private sources.

Indianapolis followed last summer in the footsteps of other cities by establishing a Pure Milk Commission and a Public Playground Association. These movements were inaugurated by the Children's Aid Association and were quite successful. The interest aroused in public playgrounds resulted in a law providing for their maintenance hereafter by the Board of School Commissioners in cities of ten thousand or more inhabitants.

The tuberculosis fight continues. On the grounds of the Indianapolis City Hospital there are being erected, from private funds for the most part, a number of cottages or shacks.

The Red Cross has devoted to this purpose a portion of the funds raised last winter through the sale of Christmas stamps, the balance being used in the care of some specially worthy cases. A small private sanitarium, backed by the Indiana Medical College, has been established at Rockwood. The State Tuberculosis Commission has purchased a site at Rockville and is erecting buildings for a state hospital, for which the last legislature appropriated $130,000. The site cost $24,000 and contains 504 acres.

A special feature of the State Conference last fall was the interest manifested by the public school authorities. Visiting delegates spoke in all the schools, and the classes were all dismissed one afternoon in order that the teachers might attend the Conference. The registration reached high water mark—817. A new law has been passed providing for the payment of the expenses, by the respective counties, of a delegate from each Board of County Charities.

New Legislation

A law requiring every person, firm, corporation or association that operates a maternity hospital or a child-caring institution of any kind, also every child-placing agency, to procure an annual license from the Board of State Charities.

Two amendments to the compulsory school attendance law. One provides that truant officers shall take office in August following their appointment in May; the other extends the benefits of the law to blind and deaf children.

A law authorizing the establishment, equipment and maintenance of public playgrounds by the Board of School Commissioners in cities of ten thousand or more inhabitants.

An act providing for the medical inspection of all persons attending or employed in or about all public, private and parochial schools in Indianapolis.

A law concerning private corporations not for profit, designed to enable certain interested citizens of Indianapolis to erect a hospital for sick and crippled children.

An amendment to a law of 1905 which prohibited the sale of cigarettes. The law as amended applies to minors only.

A law enabling fraternal benevolent organizations to maintain homes, schools or hospitals for indigent members or for indigent orphans or half orphans, and wives and widows of members.

An amendment to the 1907 adult probation law requiring that when a convicted person's sentence is suspended, the institution to which he would otherwise have been sent shall be notified within five days and that the paroled person shall remain within the jurisdiction of the court until the agent of that institution shall have procured employment for him.

A law prohibiting the confinement of prisoners in a jail which has been condemned as unfit by the Board of State Charities. The board is required to prescribe regulations for the conduct of jails and the sheriff must keep full records and make reports at stated times to the circuit court and the Board of Commissioners concerning the jail and its inmates.

A law fixing the ownership of fees charged by sheriffs. It has been contended that certain of these fees should go to the county but the new law gives them to the sheriff. These include, among many others, in and out fees of twenty-five cents each and forty cents per day per capita for boarding prisoners.

An amendment to the Board of County Charities law providing for the payment of the expenses of a delegate to the State Conference of Charities.

A tax of not less than two cents nor more than five cents on each $100 of taxable property for the maintenance of public hospitals in cities of less than 20,000 inhabitants.

An act regulating the construction and maintenance of tenement, lodging and apartment houses in cities having a population of 59,000 or more, according to the last preceding United States census (Indianapolis and Evansville).

A law for the construction of a hospital for insane criminals at the Indiana State Prison. Appropriation, $65,000.

The time for contracting for the labor of state prison convicts extended from 1910 to 1920. Six hundred convicts and 50 per cent. of the population over 800 may be employed on contracts. Provision is also made for the appointment of a commission to devise a plan by which convict labor can be employed without competing with outside labor or industries.

A law fixing the minimum and maximum ages for commitment to the Indiana Girls' School at ten and eighteen years respectively; provision for paroling girls and employing visiting agents; prescribing the penalty for causing or encouraging any girl in the custody of the school to violate any of its rules.

An increase in the state allowance for the maintenance of the State Soldiers' Home from $12.50 to $16 per month for each member, officer and employe.

A law providing for the assignment of three police officers as humane officers. Applies to Indianapolis only.

An act providing for the licensing of employment agencies by the Bureau of Statistics; another providing for the establishment of a free employment bureau in connection with the same department.

An act concerning the assignment of wages.

A department of inspection and supervision of public offices, providing for uniform accounting.

A law increasing the penalty for robbery from "two to fourteen years" to "five to fourteen years," fixing the same penalty for assault and battery with intent to commit robbery, and prescribing imprisonment for life for the third offense.

IOWA

F. S. TREAT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

The child labor law was amended by the Thirty-third General Assembly of Iowa (winter of 1908-9) to make it obligatory on the part of the employer to furnish the age of the child employed to the state commissioner of labor statistics.

Felt Needs

An institution for the care of epileptics.

KANSAS

F. W. KNAPP, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

The 1909 legislature appropriated for the erection of an additional tubercular pavilion at the Topeka State Hospital for the Insane, also for a reception hospital for the same institution, and for two tubercular pavilions for the Osawatomie State Hospital for the Insane. The above improvements will provide for the complete segregation of the tubercular insane from among the other patients at each of these state hospitals.

One of the best child labor laws in the United States was enacted.

An anti-cigarette bill, providing penalties for the manufacture, sale or use of cigarettes within the state, and also prohibiting the sale or giving of cigarette papers, was enacted and is now in force.

The manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors was absolutely prohibited for all purposes, and under a separate law the public drinking of intoxicating liquors of any kind in any street or interurban car or upon any railway passenger train, coach or dining car or vestibule was prohibited and made punishable by a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars or by imprisonment in the county jail for not more than ninety days, or both. Conductors are by the act given authority to arrest any person violating its provisions.

The name of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home was changed to the "State Orphans' Home" and provision was made for the state to recover the cost of maintenance of any child within the home from its parents or other persons responsible for its dependency, where circumstances justified such action.

The name of the Parsons State Hospital was changed to the "State Hospital for Epileptics" in order that the name might more definitely convey the purpose of the institution. This act also authorizes the superintendent to restrain and hold sane epileptics who are received under voluntary commitment, but provides that any patient thus committed may at any time ob-

tain his discharge by giving ten days' written notice to the superintendent.

The name of the School for Feeble-minded Youth at Winfield was changed to the "State Home for Feeble-minded." This act also provides that the inmates admitted to the institution shall, until paroled or discharged, be under the custody and control of the superintendent and the superintendent may restrain inmates when deemed necessary for the welfare of the inmate or the proper conduct of the institution. The same provision with reference to discharge is contained in this bill as in case of sane epileptics above noted. This bill also provides that the state may recover the cost of care and treatment of any inmate from the estate of the inmate or his relatives who are bound by law for his support, if the same can be done without impoverishment.

The State Board of Health was given widely extended authority over natural water courses, water sewerage systems, and their powers and duties with reference to the enforcement of pure food and pure drug laws were also extended.

Felt Needs

Provision should be made for a state hospital for the criminal insane, a state sanatorium for the treatment of tuberculosis, and for a reformatory for young women, by the next legislature.

KENTUCKY

EDWARD GRAUMAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Awakening of public consciousness to needed reforms, principally in tenement houses, through newspaper articles, public meetings, addresses by prominent charity reformers, such as Jacob Riis, Francis H. McLean, etc.

LOUISIANA

MICHEL HEYMANN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

Juvenile Court law.

Felt Needs

Traveling expenses of secretary for State Board of Charities and Correction.

More room for insane.

MAINE

EDWIN P. WENTWORTH, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

Much time was spent in the legislature on a bill for a Board of State Charities which had been prepared by the Governor's Commission and reported last year. The bill was finally lost, but will be reintroduced two years hence.

Laws were enacted for medical inspection of school children, requiring children to be inspected once each year (singularly, this was limited to cities of less than 160,000, thus excluding Portland); against the use of tobacco, alcohol in any form and narcotic drugs by minors, and making it "contributory delinquency" to sell or furnish them to minors. A bill providing for a Juvenile Court for the whole state was defeated, but a commission of inquiry on the subject was appointed.

The truancy law was strengthened by authorizing the truant officers to visit factories, etc., during school hours to ascertain if minors of school age are employed and to report to the inspector of factories; school age for illiterates was extended to seventeen. The probation law for juvenile delinquents was extended so as to take in the whole state. Power

was given to the State Board of Prison and Jail Inspection to make recommendations as to buildings, management, dieting, etc., which, if not acted on by the county commissioners, the board shall present to the governor and council; if approved by them the inspectors may carry the recommendation into effect at the expense of the county. The desertion and non-support law was strengthened, raising the offense to a felony and increasing the maximum penalty to a fine of $500 and imprisonment for two years. At the same time the law of 1907, which provided that the earnings of a prisoner for non-support should be paid to his family, was repealed. A new law makes the registration of tuberculosis cases compulsory; this is in control of the State Board of Health and it will not permit the register to be used except in the interest of public health and safety. Many other precautions against tuberculosis are found in this law.

MARYLAND

NATHANIEL G. GRASTY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Federation of the Public Athletic League and the Playground Association. A campaign for the state care of the insane. Establishment of the Phipps Pyschiatric Institute. Passage of the water loan.

Maryland Tuberculosis Association has perfected organizations in six counties during the year. These and previous similar organizations in the counties are being expanded into county leagues for social service, with a state league in view.

Felt Needs

Hospitals for advanced tuberculosis.

State nurses and dispensaries in the counties.

Municipal tuberculosis nurses.

A new and enlightened criminal law with probation and indeterminate sentence as important features.

Amendment of the Non-Support Law by which 50 cents per day may be paid to the families of prisoners for every day the respective prisoners work. Establishment of the farm colony for vagrants and dipsomaniacs, with indeterminate sentence. Industrial education.

Maryland needs more adequate provision for the care of feeble-minded children, also to make provision for the custodial care of feeble-minded women of child-bearing age.

More adequate appropriations for the care of the insane, owing to the fact that the state will undertake the care of all indigent insane in 1911.

A colony for epileptics.

A thorough investigation and supervision of the state institutions and those private agencies subsidized from public funds.

An intermediate reformatory for young men on the plan of the Elmira Reformatory, New York. A parole system for adult offenders. A detention home for juvenile delinquents.

General Remarks

It is hoped that Maryland will cultivate a further development of the civic spirit which, in some states, has accomplished so much for social progress.

MASSACHUSETTS

JOSEPH LEE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments, Legislation, Etc.

I do not think it is solely because I am a playground fanatic that the great happening of the year from the social point of view seems to me to have been the playground referendum in the cities of the state last fall and in the towns in March and April, the result of which was that of 26 cities and 16 towns all but two cities voted in favor of playgrounds, and that the total vote was 153,651 for and 34,284 against. This is the first test, so far as I know, of the actual feeling of the

people on this subject. We were somewhat nervous about it before it was made; but such nervousness as remains is not on the part of the friends of the playground movement.

The efforts of the righteous have this winter and spring been so much taken up by the new charter for Boston that less than the usual grist of important social legislation has been turned out. The charter bill passed the house yesterday (May 26th) and will pass the senate and be signed by the Governor. The bill is pretty much in the form reported by the Finance Commission. The many important administrative features, including a permanent finance commission and the requirement that appointments to heads of departments should be approved by the State Civil Service Commission, are reported unconditionally, the political features of the bill being subject to a referendum under which the people will choose between two plans: (1) a city council of 36, nine elected at large and the rest by wards, and nomination by convention; and (2) a council of nine and nomination by petition. The latter is the Finance Commission's recommendation.

The most important legislative matter outside of the charter is a bill to consolidate the State Board of Education and the State Industrial Commission, which have been working at cross purposes.

The Probation Commission created by the act of last year has recommended two blanks for the probation officers, to take the place of the many and cumbrous books on which their records have hitherto been kept, and this alleviation of their clerical work has in almost all instances been cheerfully accepted. There have been successful conferences of the judges and of the probation officers with the commission; and another, of the western judges, will be held in June. Probation in Massachusetts is, as I stated last year, in a condition where it has got to make good or quit, and it now seems more likely than it did to make good.

The most exciting legislative fight of the year was the defeat by Miss Higgins, and a hastily collected force of volunteers, of a bill to allow theaters to employ children at any time of night, which had gained great momentum and seemed headed for a touchdown when she tackled it.

The mayor of Boston has put in a bill for licensing beggars, but there is good hope that it will be killed.

Felt Needs

The two needs I personally feel are, first, some better way of dealing with boys and girls between fourteen and sixteen who are now fired out of school without adequate preparation for any kind of work and with few kinds of work that lead anywhere open to them.

The other felt need is for a few more privates and a great many fewer generals in the philanthropic ranks. We have had a terrible access of generalitis recently.

MINNESOTA

A. W. GUTRIDGE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The continued increase in interest in the anti-tuberculosis propaganda is the most important thing.

In the summer of 1907 the Associated Charities of St. Paul brought about the establishment of a tent colony for the treatment of the disease. It ran until cold weather set in and did good work. In the spring of 1908 a permanent committee was organized in St. Paul to carry on the campaign, and the camp equipment which the Associated Charities had used the year before was turned over to it. The work was enlarged by the committee so that during the summer a greater number of the afflicted had the benefit of the out of doors. In October the committee held a Tag Day, which netted some $18,000. Two dispensaries have since been opened and three nurses put in the field.

The splendid interest of the Christian family in Minneapolis continues unabated. Their outdoor camp cared for a large

number during the summer of 1908, and they have endowed a hospital in Minneapolis for the care of consumptives.

In the spring of 1908 the State Association for the Prevention and Cure of Tuberculosis undertook to raise a fund to assist the State Board of Health in establishing a traveling exhibition. Since then it has visited sixteen cities and made twenty-three exhibitions. Good work was done in each place, eleven county committees having been organized. Duluth has put a visitor at work to give her time wholly to this disease. The expense was, however, borne almost wholly by the State Board of Health. At the last session of the legislature a liberal appropriation was secured by the State Board for educational work concerning tuberculosis, and the state association hopes soon to be able to put a worker in the field also. A law was also enacted giving counties the power to build and maintain tuberculosis sanatoriums.

New Legislation

The most important social advance indicated by statute during the past year was the enactment of a juvenile court law to apply to all parts of the state not previously under such a law. In the smaller counties the jurisdiction is placed in the probate or county courts—the emphasis upon the value of probation officers is continued. Another measure of importance which became a law was the adult probation bill, which gives the court the power to stay the execution for any crime for which the maximum penalty provided by law does not exceed imprisonment for five years, and place the convicted upon probation. Through a defect in the law under which commitments from the three large cities to the State Training School were made, girls last year secured their release upon reaching 18 years of age. A law was enacted legalizing their detention until they become twenty-one. Another enactment authorizes the State Board of Control to pay the families of convicts a certain percentage of their earnings.

Many other laws relating to social questions were enacted, among them one appropriating $2,250,000 for the construction

of a new prison at Stillwater; another appropriating $125,000 for the construction and $25,000 for the maintenance of the Industrial School for Girls, which the Board of Control had previously located at Sauk Center; another appropriating $55,000 for an enlargement of the State Hospital for Crippled and Deformed Children at St. Paul, the addition, which is to be located in the suburbs, is intended chiefly to enlarge the school facilities of the institution; another appropriating for the State Board of Visitors a sum sufficient to employ a secretary; another authorizing the maintenance of a State Home for Incurables; another empowering the cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth to sell bonds to purchase and equip playgrounds; another authorizing the state commissioner of labor to appoint a number of women factory inspectors; another limiting the period of labor for women and children to fifty-eight hours a week; another forbidding the sale of the labor of convicts after the expiration of present contracts; another creating an employers' liability commission; another requiring workshops to be made more sanitary; another authorizing the pensioning of school teachers in the cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth; another simplifying the enforcement of the compulsory education law in the country and smaller cities; another prohibiting the use of basements for school purposes; another appropriating $7,000 a year to the State Board of Health to be used in educational work concerning tuberculosis; another authorizing the construction of county tuberculosis sanatoriums; another providing conditions under which dairy products may be advertised as pasteurized; another limiting the number of saloon licenses throughout the state; another making the term "vagrant" more inclusive; another prohibiting cigarettes; another relating to kidnapping; another prohibiting certain medical advertisements; another raising the age of consent to 18 years; others aiming to prohibit "white slavery" and still others strengthening the juvenile court law which has been in force.

Felt Needs

A reformatory for women.

MISSOURI

PROF. CHARLES A. ELLWOOD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

The legislature just adjourned accomplished little in the way of social legislation. Chief among the laws of social significance which passed were: (1) An act to strengthen and amend the compulsory attendance law, so as to compel attendance for three-fourths of the school year, and not exempting from attendance by reason of poverty. (2) An act to amend the Juvenile Court law, so that it applies to all counties of over 50,000 inhabitants. (3) An act limiting the employment of women in mechanical, manufacturing and mercantile establishments. (4) An act to provide for adequate dairy inspection. (5) An act to establish a reform school for colored girls, with an appropriation of $20,000 to start it. The State Board of Charities and Correction received its usual appropriation of $5,000 for the biennium. The bill to establish a board of control was defeated.

Felt Needs

(1) Adequate revenue to support the state's institutions. (2) Reorganization and adequate support for the State Board of Charities. (3) A civil service law to take our institutions out of politics. (4) An industrial reformatory for first offenders. (5) A state school for dependent children on the Michigan plan and a state hospital for crippled children.

NEBRASKA

A. W. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

1. Charity Organization Society of Lincoln purchased a new building for a detention home for $6,500 and furnished it rent

free to the county for Juvenile Court subjects; capacity twenty-five.

2. A movement, also at Lincoln, to establish public playground.

3. The Federation of all Charities of Omaha was accomplished last winter under the auspices of Associated Charities with 52 charitable and philanthropic organizations of Omaha and South Omaha affiliated, with Associated Charities as the center. Regular conferences are held with large attendance and much interest. The Associated Charities of Omaha has also developed a department for legal aid and for gardening of vacant lots, and has established a new branch work at South Omaha.

A new detention home for the work of the Juvenile Court of Omaha is being constructed at Fourth and Bancroft streets, at a cost of about $38,000, to accommodate nearly sixty children. It is located on twenty-one acres of ground and will be the best detention home in the United States. It will be completed by July 1.

A new building for the Child-Saving Institute of Omaha, to cost $50,000, is under way and will be completed about November 1.

New Legislation

A bill to establish a state public school similar to the state public schools of Minnesota and Michigan, with additional provision for the boarding out of children similar to the boarding out system of Massachusetts. The passage of this bill involved the abolishment of the Home for the Friendless. Another important act was one to compel support of wife and children by persons chargeable by law with the maintenance thereof and making failure to do so a misdemeanor and providing penalty therefor. A parole law was an important act of the legislature. The indeterminate sentence bill was vetoed by the governor because it conflicted with other legislation. Appropriations were made for new buildings at the Institutions for Deaf at Omaha and Feeble-minded Youth at Beatrice.

Felt Needs

(1) State Board of Control.
(2) Sanitarium for tuberculosis patients.
(3) Indeterminate sentence laws.
(4) Colony or hospital for epileptics.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

MRS. LILLIAN C. STREETER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The New Hampshire State Sanatorium for Consumptives, now in process of erection, will be open for occupancy early the coming summer.

New Legislation

At the last session of the legislature the following laws relative to charities and correction in New Hampshire were enacted:

All children born in maternity homes, hospitals and other places, who are not claimed by parents, shall be reported to the State Board of Charities and placed out under its supervision.

The appropriation for the education of the deaf and dumb and blind was increased from $14,000 to $16,000.

An appropriation of $5,000 was made for the establishment of a manual training department at the New Hampshire Industrial School, and the per capita allowance increased one dollar per week for each inmate.

The following appropriations were made for the benefit of the New Hampshire School for Feeble-minded: $3,000 for furnishing the new dormitory building just completed; $25,000 for the erection and furnishing of a building to be used for kitchen and dining-room purposes; $1,200 for the erection and

equipment of a new laundry; $1,600 for providing an additional boiler; $2,500 for increased water supply, and $900 to remodel a house upon the premises for hospital purposes. The stated annual sum for maintenance ($16,000) was changed to a per capita basis of $3.75 per week for each inmate. Provision was also made for the commitment of adult females of child-bearing age to this institution by the probate court.

Felt Needs

Perhaps the greatest need of our state at the present time is more systematic care of our dependent children. A state home for cripples and incurables and a state home for the aged are very much needed; also a state workhouse where petty criminals can be confined at hard labor instead of in idleness as at present, and a state industrial school for girls.

NEW JERSEY

MRS. MINA C. VAN WINKLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Commission to investigate the causes of dependency and crime.

Society for the prevention and relief of tuberculosis.

Permanent commission on the care of the blind.

State tuberculosis sanitarium.

City tuberculosis sanitarium.

School nurses in Newark.

New public baths in place of unsanitary old ones.

Two visiting nurses for tuberculosis cases under direction of Board of Health of Newark.

New Legislation

Employers' liability bill.

Felt Needs

Child labor bill that prohibits night work for children.

Perfect child labor law that provides for minimum health and educational qualifications.

Custodial care for the feeble-minded.

Woman's reformatory.

Intelligent interest in the tenement house commissioners' work by the legislators.

Proper work for prisoners.

NEW YORK

ROBERT W. HILL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The "tramp problem" has engaged the attention of the press, and the "farm colony" plan for treating vagrancy is favorably considered. While the bill presented to the legislature failed of passage, the educational work in connection with it will bear fruit hereafter. The plan is now in excellent shape for next winter's session.

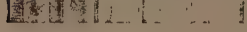
Felt Needs

A "farm colony" for tramps and vagrants.

Provision for delinquents (young men) between the ages of 16 and 21.

Provision for the vocational training of permanently crippled children who need education other than that afforded by the public schools.

Full state supervision over all institutions.



General Remarks

There is little to add except that the public evinces a deep interest in its charities and corrections. A new "foundation"

of an altruistic character, similar to the "Russell Sage Foundation," was incorporated by the legislature, and indicates the interest which men of means are taking in social betterment. These "Foundations" have the means to study the underlying problems, and, unlike legislative committees, are not embarrassed by political considerations. They are independent, and seek only the public welfare; hence their establishment at this time is a distinct service to the people.

NORTH CAROLINA

MISS DAISY DENSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Reform school for white boys opened January 12. Forty now in charge.

State tuberculosis sanatorium opened for patients since the last report.

Special physician under direction of the Board of Health and in connection with the State Laboratory of Hygiene has begun preventive treatment for hydrophobia.

New Legislation

The legislature of 1909 enacted some important laws relating to charitable and penal questions and to public health.

The State Tuberculosis Sanatorium, which was opened for patients during 1908, was given a larger appropriation for improvements and for maintenance.

County Commissioners were authorized to establish and maintain, wholly or in part, one or more tuberculosis dispensaries or sanatoria.

The health laws were improved and the State Board of Health given sufficient funds to employ the entire time of the secretary. Mineral waters to be analyzed. Non-residents selling bottled waters to submit proof of purity. Better protection of water sheds, water supply and sewerage.

An act to provide diphtheria antitoxin for indigent persons.

Registration of deaths in cities and towns of one thousand and over.

Members of the State Board of Public Charities were elected by the assembly; terms, six years; hereafter vacancies filled and appointments to be made by the Governor. Members of the board, the secretary, or other official hereafter appointed by the board, to have their actual expenses paid when making such inspections of the charitable and penal institutions as the board may deem necessary.

The Board of Internal Improvement to require and take sufficient bonds of contractors on public works or buildings. Given charge of alterations or erection of public buildings.

The Governor may appoint an expert accountant to examine and check up books and accounts and to make such examination as is proper as regards books and accounts of state departments and institutions.

Punishment in the discretion of the court of persons selling narcotic drugs to habitues.

Death by hanging abolished. Electrocution at the State's Prison. Warden or deputy to be executioner.

Reformatory for negro youth incorporated.

Separation of white and colored prisoners in the camps and prison during sleeping and eating hours and as far as practicable at all times.

White epileptics to be cared for at the colony buildings at the Raleigh Hospital for the Insane as soon as buildings are completed. (Restricted to the worst cases.)

To prevent boards of directors of state institutions from electing one of their number to any position under their control.

Persons of unsound mind restored to legal rights by certificate of recovery, sworn and subscribed by superintendent of the hospital and recorded in the county of such person's residence.

A resolution in regard to the higher education of the blind. Memorializing Congress for a national college at Washington similar to the College for the Deaf.

Pensions to confederate veterans increased. School law strengthened with longer terms. A number of new jails and home buildings to be erected. Increased appropriations, and, in fact, growth and improvement in all lines.

Felt Needs

State supervision of private orphanages and child-caring institutions, such institutions to be chartered upon certificate from the Board of Charities.

All prisoners to be under direct state control and supervision.

Village for epileptics.

Home for feeble-minded children.

NORTH DAKOTA

FRANK D. HALL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

State W. C. T. U. Home for Fallen Women has been taken over by the Florence Crittenton Home System; their building in Fargo entirely remodeled and greatly improved.

The North Dakota Children's Home Society, Fargo, has added a cottage for the temporary or permanent care of crippled or disabled homeless children who cannot be provided with family homes by adoption or otherwise.

New Legislation

None of special value to charity work; steps were taken to secure information relative to tubercular conditions and sanatoriums, looking to future.

Child labor laws were enacted, though this state has no manufactories employing any considerable number of children.

Felt Needs

State Board of Charities much needed, as also a state visitation agent for inspection of placements of homeless children.

OHIO

H. H. SHIRER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The political change in the executive department has created a probability of a number of changes of superintendents in the state institutions. Laws relating to such matters are not sufficiently definite to forbid such political upheavals. Until this is corrected a change in the executive always produces a state of unrest among officers, employes and inmates.

New Legislation

The last session of the General Assembly was a called session. Little legislation of any consequence was enacted which relates to charities and correction. One act authorizes not more than five counties to combine for the purpose of erecting a district hospital for the treatment of tuberculous persons.

Felt Needs

Non-political management of state institutions; indeterminate sentence for all offenders, misdemeanants and felonies; a reformatory for women.

General Remarks

State sanatorium at Mount Vernon will be ready about July for the reception of patients afflicted with incipient pulmonary tuberculosis. The managing board has been appointed by the Governor, and Dr. S. C. Conwell appointed superintendent.

OREGON

W. R. WALPOLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

At the last session an appropriation was secured for state care for tubercular poor.

Felt Needs

The most imperative need in this state is for a State Board of Charities—state supervision of some kind. The grand juries visit the various public institutions, but with negative results.

Another of the greatest needs in the state is for a new system of jails and modern methods of caring for the vagrancy class. The workhouse and work colony systems have been agitated time and again with but little result so far.

General Remarks

We would note for Multnomah county the long-desired separation of the County Hospital from the Poor Farm. A new site has been purchased for the hospital, and the County Commissioners have advertised the farm for sale. A new site is being sought and friends of the workhouse plan are hoping that sufficient land may be purchased so that we may meet our vagrancy and minor offender problem in a humane and adequate manner.

PENNSYLVANIA

CARL KELSEY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Pittsburgh Survey.

Tuberculosis exhibit at Philadelphia and extension of work in state.

Adoption of plan to suppress street begging in Philadelphia.

Removal girls' department House of Refuge to country site with separate rooms for each inmate.

Children's Bureau in Philadelphia conducted an eight months' course in child saving work.

New Legislation

New and improved law regarding child labor.

Law providing for public payment of probation officers of Juvenile Courts.

Law establishing parole system for adult convicts.

Felt Needs

State charities aid association.

Reform of subsidy system.

Increased provision for defectives.

Change in prison labor.

Better supervision of children placed out.

SOUTH CAROLINA

A. T. JAMISON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Organization of a State Association for Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

Felt Needs

A State Conference of Charities and Correction.

SOUTH DAKOTA

W. E. TIPTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

A parole officer has been created for the state in the person of one member of the State Board of Charities and Correction.

Also a law for County Juvenile Courts.

TEXAS

JOHN L. GREEN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

A state health board.

New Legislation

Law making a majority in any school district authority for a local tax for public education.

Felt Needs

Abolition of penitentiary lease system.

Prohibiting the confinement of insane in jails.

Compulsory education.

Adult probation.

Proper care of tubercular cases.

State Board of Charities and Correction.

UTAH

MRS. IDA SMOOT DUSENBERRY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Establishment of a detention home for boys in Salt Lake county.

New Legislation

New Juvenile Court law, law relating to detention homes, and law relating to the curfew.

Felt Needs

The Juvenile Court Commission needs more money. The legislation relating to juvenile courts, detention homes and the curfew is fairly satisfactory and affords fairly good facilities for working out some of the problems connected with this class of work.

VERMONT

REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Increased activity of the State Board of Health in the warfare against tuberculosis.

VIRGINIA

J. T. MASTIN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The state is building an institution for the care of epileptics.

New Legislation

Reported last year—legislature meets once in two years.

Felt Needs

An industrial school for girls.
A state institution for feeble-minded.
Larger facilities for caring for destitute colored children.

WISCONSIN

M. J. TAPPINS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Legislation

Separate building for criminal insane, pending.
To compel Home Finding Societies to incorporate, pending.

To have agents of State Board of Control inspect homes wherever dependent children are placed, pending.

To compel use of prophylactic treatment for prevention of blindness, pending.

Requiring judges to visit State Prison and Reformatory, pending.

Parole law, general, pending.

Site for another home for the feeble-minded, pending.

Probation of first offenders, pending.

Felt Needs

Another home for feeble-minded, pending.

Provision for prevention of increase of mental defectives, pending.

Methods or means to induce longer period of service of employes in the hospitals for the insane.

CANADA

NEW BRUNSWICK

REV. THOMAS HUNTER BOYD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

The prevalence of tuberculosis in various forms has been recognized as never before, and citizens throughout the Province have been urged to make united efforts to diminish it.

New Legislation

Tuberculosis has been included in the list of diseases of an infectious nature, and local Boards of Health will be expected to take proper measures for treatment and disinfection.

Felt Needs

The appointment of a Prison Matron in St. John and elsewhere. More public baths and public comfort stations in all the towns. A Children's Protection Act is increasingly recognized as necessary.

General Remarks

It appears to be considered an unpatriotic act to call attention to truancy in rural sections, or the need of special schools for defectives, and provision for other special classes. This may be due to the fact that after years of indifference to a diminished population, the people are becoming aware of the natural advantages of this favored Province.

ONTARIO

DR. A. M. ROSEBRUGH, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY

New Developments

Several new general hospitals have been opened. There are now in the Province of Ontario 69 general hospitals, 8 hospitals for insane, 1 institution for feeble-minded, 1 hospital for epileptics, 28 county houses of refuge, 34 city refuges, 30 orphanages, 3 homes for incurables, 2 convalescent homes, 2 Magdalen asylums, 45 jails, 1 central prison, 1 female reformatory, 2 industrial schools.

Felt Needs

A provincial reformatory located on a large farm.

The establishment of jail farms, with special provision for the care of the inebriates.

Growing sentiment in favor of legislation to secure the indeterminate sentence and probation system.

It is also felt most desirable that there should be a special institution to provide segregation of feeble-minded women, so that these poor creatures will not be allowed to have offspring.

UNIFORM STATISTICS

Useful comparisons between the work of different institutions and agencies in the same state, and between the institutions and societies of the same kind in different states, have long been considered desirable. A necessary basis for such comparison is to have statistics on a plan as nearly uniform as possible. Three attempts have been made, at the Conferences of 1906, 1907 and 1908, to secure uniform statistics; the first as regards state institutions; the second about the work of relief agencies and associated charities; the third regarding child-helping societies and institutions.

In each case, forms for such statistics were prepared by the Committee on Statistics and sent out from the Secretary's office to the various officers and boards who should be interested, with a request that they might be used in their published annual reports (not for reports to the Conference).

The reports below from the different states tell the results to date, which, it will be seen, are far from satisfactory. Further efforts are contemplated and next year's Reports from States may possibly tell of better results.

The question put has been—

To what extent have the different forms been adopted?

For the purposes of this report the three kinds of statistics are designated as A., B. and C., A. being the first set, sent out in 1906, Statistics of State Institutions; B. the second, presented in 1907, Statistics of Relief and Charity Organization Societies; and C. the third, adopted by the Section on Children, in 1908, Statistics of Child-Helping Institutions.

The answers are as follows:

ARKANSAS.—Nothing has been done as regards A., B. or C.

CALIFORNIA.—A. Has been adopted for all the state institutions in their reports to the Board of State Charities and is, in general, followed in the statistics of that board. Nothing is known about B. and C.

COLORADO.—A. All the state institutions use the form prescribed. B. and C. Not known.

CONNECTICUT.—A. Of the principal state institutions, two have adopted the form. B. and C. None that are known.

DELAWARE.—A. Form not adopted. B. The Associated Charities of Wilmington conforms as nearly as possible. C. No report.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—The institutions have not adopted the form and unanimously declare they have never received the blanks.

GEORGIA.—No means of finding the information.

ILLINOIS.—No one of the three forms has been adopted.

INDIANA.—A. Adopted completely. B. and C. No use made of the forms.

IOWA—Not used, so far as known.

KANSAS.—A. Reports in the main conform to the plan. B. and C. Reports made comply with laws of state.

KENTUCKY.—Not used.

LOUISIANA.—A. Used to a small extent. B. and C. Very few have adopted the system recommended.

MAINE.—A. Not used because a different form is prescribed by law and custom. B. Information desired given, though not in precise form. C. Not used so far as known.

MARYLAND.—A. State institutions have done nothing with the forms. B. Forms never received, or misplaced. C. Agencies have done nothing with it.

MASSACHUSETTS.—No report on the subject.

MINNESOTA.—A. Used and afterwards modified. B. Not to any considerable extent. C. Not been heard of.

MISSOURI.—A. Not adopted by the institutions but carefully followed by the State Board of Charities. B. One society only (that at Columbia, Mo.) has used the form. C. Not used.

NEBRASKA.—A. Not used for lack of interest. B. Not adopted by any society. C. The Child Saving Institution of Omaha adopted the form; about others nothing is known.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Forms not used.

NEW JERSEY.—A. Received no consideration. B. The Newark and the Orange Bureaus of Charities have adopted the form. C. The State Board of Children's Guardians and the Newark Children's Bureau have adopted the method.

NEW YORK.—A. The forms are in general use in the state with some modifications to conform to law. B. In the main used by the principal societies with necessary modifications to suit conditions. C. The reports must conform to State Law and the regulations of the Board of State Charities.

NORTH CAROLINA.—A. Adopted by all state institutions but one. B. Not used. C. Orphanages aided by state report to Board of Charities on the form prescribed, others do not use them.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Nothing known.

OHIO.—A. Most of the State Institutions used the form in reports of 1907. Some modifications were needed. B. Do not know. C. Only a few institutions publish reports and very few have adopted the form. There is much need for its general use in the state.

OREGON.—A. Used by State Prison and State Reform School; not adopted by the Asylum for Insane as the bookkeeper said it involved a change of entire system and would prove too "expensive." The new superintendent will probably adopt it. B. Associated Charities of Portland had practically the same form in use. C. Not adopted.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A. In no case so far as known. Very little interest in the work of the National Conference. B. The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity has adopted the plan with the exception of one question. C. Not at all.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—No report on these questions.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Too little attention has been paid to the matter. Cause, indifference.

TEXAS.—A. No importance has been attached to these forms. Returns not complete, but it is clearly indicated that the forms have not had proper consideration. B. Adopted by two societies, those of Dallas and Fort Worth. C. Practically no records kept.

VERMONT.—No information.

VIRGINIA.—A. Has not been adopted. B. and C. Not at all.

UTAH.—Not at all; no objections stated.

WISCONSIN.—A. Adopted by all State Institutions. B. and C. Have not been used.

NEW BRUNSWICK.—Not adopted.

ONTARIO.—Not adopted.

HOUSING REFORM AND SLUM ABATEMENT

The questions asked were as follows:

1. Is the need of Housing Reform felt in your state?

2. Have you satisfactory laws, city ordinances, and health department regulations, regarding tenement houses, sewerage, water supply, overcrowding, etc.?

3. Are existing laws reasonably well enforced?

4. If any reform appears desirable, what efforts, if any, are being made to secure it?

In response to these questions the following states report some need of Housing Reform: California; Connecticut (in spots); Delaware; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Georgia; Iowa (not yet a serious question); Kentucky; Louisiana; Maine; Maryland; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri; New Jersey; New York; North Carolina (not urgent); Ohio (in larger cities); Oregon (badly needed in Portland); Pennsylvania; Virginia (in larger cities); Utah ("to some extent"); Wisconsin (question a growing one); New Brunswick; Ontario.

The following states report the need not felt: Arkansas; Kansas; Nebraska; New Hampshire; North Dakota; South Carolina; South Dakota; Texas; Vermont.

To the question as to satisfactory laws, etc., the answers by states are as follows: California, "fairly good laws, but need some improvements;" Connecticut, "fairly good state law, city ordinances vary greatly;" District of Columbia, "the health department regulations in force are reasonably satisfactory;" Illinois, "laws need some revision;" Indiana, "a new state law applies to two largest cities only;" Georgia, "in cities splendid regulations and rules;" Iowa, "abundant laws on sewage disposal," etc.; Louisiana, "laws satisfactory;" Maine, "no state laws, but the powers of the municipal Boards of Health are sufficient;" Maryland, "we have a new building code;" Massachusetts, "good tenement house laws in Boston and as a rule good ordinances, etc., through state;" Minnesota, "not wholly satisfactory, but pretty fair;" Missouri, "St. Louis has just enacted a new building code which is reasonably satisfactory, a new sanitary code for the state is expected this year;" Nebraska, "fairly satisfactory;" New Hampshire, "Yes;" New Jersey, "very good laws;" New York, "not yet, but things are improving;" North Carolina, "we have a progressive State Board of Health;" North Dakota, "very good as a rule;" Ohio, "law permits cities to regulate housing; city water supply and sewage are now subject to the regulations of the State Board of Health;" Oregon, "no state laws; city ordinances not satisfactory;" Pennsylvania, "no, yet much could be done under existing laws;" South Dakota, "no satisfactory laws, but no need of them;" Texas, "no satisfactory laws or ordinances;" Virginia, "satisfactory in larger cities;" Utah, "law good as far as needed;" Wisconsin, "generally speaking satisfactory, tenement bill passed two years ago declared unconstitutional, new bill pending;" New Brunswick, "ordinances in larger centers are good, but there is laxity in rural sections;" Ontario, "laws, etc., satisfactory."

The following states report laws and ordinances reasonably well enforced: California; Connecticut (state law well en-

forced); Delaware; Georgia; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Louisiana; Maryland; Minnesota; Missouri; New Hampshire; New York; North Carolina; North Dakota; Ohio; South Dakota; Utah; Wisconsin; New Brunswick; Ontario.

Reports as to enforcement from other states as follows: District of Columbia, "not strictly enforced for lack of sufficient inspection;" Illinois, "with exception of sanitary laws, enforcement is poor, owing to lack of inspection;" Indiana, "laws not universally well enforced;" Maine, "laws not enforced as well as should be;" Massachusetts, "tenement house law in Boston not satisfactorily enforced, other laws fairly;" New Jersey, "laws enforced as well as can be with expense curtailed;" Oregon, "not well enforced;" Pennsylvania, "not well enforced;" Virginia, "in most respects well enforced."

The last question as to efforts making for reform brought answers from a few states as follows: Connecticut, none; District of Columbia, National Conference on City Planning, etc.; Illinois, Building Commission of Chicago is preparing a revision of the present ordinances; Indiana, new law just secured by efforts of one devoted woman, a highly efficient State Board of Health is engaged in a perennial struggle with county boards of all grades from excellent to miserable; Kentucky, a tenement house commission is at work on legislation; Louisiana, tenement house commission working with the Board of Health; Maine, tenement house commission is at work on legislation; Massachusetts, "a great many plans, a good many studies of conditions and very little carrying out of plans or applying of studies;" Minnesota, "nothing worthy of the name, an occasional spasmodic attempt;" Missouri, tenement house commissions in St. Louis and Kansas City and other organizations are at work on legislation; New Jersey, the commissioners are seeking legislation that will empower them to stop the building of houses with arrangements in violation of laws; New York, "many civic associations are at work upon the general problem of satisfactory homes for renters, of small incomes;" Ohio, the State Board of Health holds annual conferences, one for health officers in cities having a popula-

tion of 5,000 and over and district conferences for officers of smaller cities and townships; Oregon, "a joint committee from the Portland Visiting Nursing Association and the Associated Charities of Portland is making a systematic investigation of the housing conditions of the city; Pennsylvania, one society in Philadelphia seeks better legislation, the Pittsburgh Survey is likely to start a movement there; Virginia, education through our excellent Board of Health; Utah, "movement on foot to build houses with playgrounds and a workshop on a semi-philanthropic plan;" Wisconsin, tenement house bill now pending; New Brunswick, "formation of County Associations."

OUTDOOR RELIEF

In the following states, among those reporting, there is no system of Outdoor Relief: Arkansas; District of Columbia; Louisiana; Maryland; North Dakota; South Carolina; South Dakota.

Relief is furnished by States as follows: Maine and Massachusetts, in cases of dependency having no settlement; New York, to certain Indian poor.

The County System is followed in the states of California; Colorado; Kansas; Missouri (by county judges); North Carolina; Oregon; Texas; Virginia; Utah.

The Township Method prevails in Connecticut; Illinois; Indiana; Maine; Massachusetts; New Hampshire (at county expense); New York; Vermont; Ontario.

Mixed System, some counties, some townships: In Delaware; Iowa; Michigan; Minnesota (¾ county, ¼ township); Nebraska; New Jersey; Ohio; Pennsylvania; Wisconsin.

In addition, City Relief is granted in Colorado; Georgia (city relief only); Kansas; Kentucky (for insane after discharge from institutions); Maine; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri (by mayors); Nebraska; New Jersey; Ohio; Vermont; Virginia; New Brunswick; Ontario.

In the following states there is some form of accounting and report made by the relief agents to some supervisory body:

Connecticut, in the cities the superintendent or agent reports to the Boards of Public Charity.

Delaware, Trustee of Poor reports to Levy Court.

Georgia, Agent of Relief reports to City Council.

Indiana, Township Trustees report to County Commissioners in detail.

Iowa, Trustees report to County Board of Supervisors.

Maine, in cities to the Mayor and Council.

Massachusetts, Relief Agents report to Overseers of Poor.

Nebraska, Health Boards control in cities.

New Hampshire, Overseers of Poor report to County Commissioners, City Officials to Mayor and Aldermen.

New Jersey, the Overseers of the Poor report to the Poor and Alms Committee of the Board of Chosen Freeholders.

New York, by Overseers to Township Board and Supervisors, by County Superintendent to Board of Supervisors and State Board of Charities, by Commissioner of Charities to Mayor and to State Board of Charities.

Oregon, in the counties to the County Judges.

Pennsylvania, Overseers report to the County Commissioners.

Virginia, Relief Agents report to the Supervisors of the Counties and the Councils of the Cities, these to the State Auditor of Public Accounts.

Wisconsin, Relief Agents report to County Boards of Supervisors.

Inspection and Supervision of Outdoor Relief by a State Board is reported as follows:

Indiana, complete detailed reports made to State Board of Charities.

Minnesota, in theory, reports are made to State Board of Control.

Missouri, a nominal report is made to State Board of Charities.

New York, complete reports are made to State Board of Charities.

Ohio, all officials giving relief are required to report annually to the State Board of Charities, which has no reviewing power. Also examiners of the Bureau of Uniform Accounts have power to inspect accounts of all officials.

Pennsylvania, reports are supposedly made to the State Board of Charities, which has difficulty in getting returns.

Virginia, some supervision by State Board of Charities.

INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN

The correspondents were asked to furnish a list of state institutions for dependent children; to describe the system of county institutions, if any, and to report on public support of private institutions for children, if any.

The returns show that the following states conduct state institutions for dependent children: Colorado, District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, Nebraska, Ohio, Texas, Wisconsin. Of these the institutions of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine and Ohio were originally, and most of them are still, restricted to the care of soldiers' orphans.

The following states, among those reporting, have County Orphans' Homes: Connecticut, in each county, almost wholly supported by state; Illinois, in three counties; Indiana, in 41 counties out of 92, some being owned by the county, some belonging to private associations, but all supported by the county on the per capita plan, all must have an annual license from the Board of State Charities; New York, several counties maintain County Homes or Asylums for temporary care of dependent children; North Carolina, one county has a County Home; Ohio, 46 out of 88 counties have County Homes and two counties have combined to build a district home; Oregon, some dependent children received at the Multnomah Detention Home, Portland; Pennsylvania, two or three counties have children's homes; Texas, one county has a county orphans' home; Utah, new law enables counties to establish such homes; Wisconsin, one county only (Milwaukee).

PUBLIC SUPPORT OF PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS FOR CHILDREN

ON PER CAPITA OR LUMP SUM SUBSIDY

The following states use this plan:

California (per capita); Connecticut, by cities in a few cases (lump sum); Delaware (both kinds); District of Columbia (per capita); Illinois (both kinds); Georgia (lump sum); Kansas (lump sum); Kentucky, only the Children's Home Society (lump sum); Louisiana (lump sum); Maine (lump sum); Maryland (lump sum from state, per capita from city); Massachusetts (per capita from cities and towns); Missouri (in St. Louis, per capita); New Hampshire (per capita by counties); New Jersey (in a few cities, lump sum); New York (per capita by cities and towns); North Dakota (per capita by counties); Ohio (lump sum for buildings only, per capita from counties); Oregon (both kinds); Pennsylvania (both kinds, majority lump sum, no system, no

restrictions, a question of pull, bulk given by state but counties often make per capita payments); South Dakota (some counties make contributions to one private children's home society); Vermont (little, if any); Virginia (one orphanage of one city, lump sum); Ontario (per capita).

CHILD PLACING

The questions asked were:

A. How far is Child Placing practiced?

B. By what agency?

C. Is the boarding-out plan used; if so, how far?

D. Is there any effective supervision of placed-out children, and if so, is this under the State's regulation and control?

The answers received were as follows, by states:

ARKANSAS.—A. No state system; B. The Arkansas Methodist Orphanage does some placing; C. Counties having no poorhouse, board out; D. The institution above named supervises, but the state has no control.

CALIFORNIA.—A. Limited; B. There are three different home-finding societies; C. The Associated Charities of San Francisco has been using this plan; D. Some after-care, doubtfully as thorough as should be.

COLORADO.—A. and B. The state home has placing officer; C. No; D. Placing officer looks after placed-out children to a considerable extent.

CONNECTICUT.—A. Yes; B. By County Temporary Homes, Orphans' Asylums and Children's Aid Societies; C. Used somewhat, but will be discontinued; D. Children looked after by volunteer town committees and agents of the State Board of Charities.

DELAWARE.—A. Yes; B. By S. P. C. C. and Children's Home Society; C. No; D. Children's Home employs a visitor.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A. Considerably; B. By Board of Children's Guardians; C. Chiefly for very young children; D. No public regulation or control.

GEORGIA.—A. B. C. D. None.

ILLINOIS.—A. To a large extent; B. By most of the child-caring agencies of the state through an agent who inspects the home and gives after-supervision; C. When the receiving homes are full some of the institutions place children out to board; D. A State Agent and his assistants do after-supervision. So far the appropriation has not been large enough to cover the work fully.

INDIANA.—A. Law requires placement as soon as possible; B. Most of the Homes do some little, but the work is chiefly done by the State Agents employed by the Board of State Charities; C. No boarding out is done; D. After-supervision is thoroughly done by the State Agents.

IOWA.—A. Widely; B. State Agents of the State Home and many by home-finding associations; C. None; D. The State looks carefully after the children placed by the State Agents and some of the societies have effective workers in the field.

KANSAS.—A. Largely; B. Agents of the State Home and many home-finding societies; C. No boarding-out; D. State supervises its own but does not supervise the detail work of any private society.

KENTUCKY.—A. Freely; B. By the Children's Home Society, also the Juvenile Court; C. No boarding out; D. No state supervision, but the Kentucky Children's Home Society is believed to exercise good watch-care over its wards.

LOUISIANA.—A. In a small way; B. By the institutions; C. No boarding out; D. No effective supervision.

MAINE.—A. Not largely; B. By the state institutions for dependent and delinquent children and private societies; C. No boarding out; D. Effective supervision by State Agents of the children from state institutions, but no state supervision of the work of private societies.

MARYLAND.—A. Moderately; B. Supervisors of city charities and Children's Aid Society; C. Moderately by the Children's Aid Society; D. Excellent after supervision but not under state control.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A. It is the only way in which the state deals with children, except defectives and young children under four with their mothers in institutions, and it is a good deal practiced by cities and towns; B. By the State Board of Charities, Trustees of Lyman and Reform Schools, Overseers of the Poor, Boston Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Children's Aid Society, Children's Friend Society, Hampden County Children's Aid Association; C. Boarded out to a great extent; D. All the above organizations exercise effective supervision, unless perhaps the Overseers of the Poor, whose work in this respect, however, is supervised by the State Board of Charity, the state controls only its own part of it.

MINNESOTA.—A. It is made the chief aim; B. By the agents of the State School; C. Boarding plan not used; D. Yes, very effective supervision under state control.

MISSOURI.—A. Considerably; B. By Missouri Children's Home Society and occasionally by private institutions and by County Courts; C. Not used; D. The Children's Home Society supervises the children placed, but there is no control nor supervision by the state.

NEBRASKA.—A. Very generally; B. To some extent by the state, but more by private agencies; C. Boarding out plan not used; D. Effective after-supervision of placed out children by private societies, no state regulation or control.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A. About 13 per cent. of dependent children are placed out; B. By County Commissioners; C. All above are boarded; D. No effective supervision.

NEW JERSEY.—A. Practically all over the state; B. By Catholic Children's Aid Society, Children's Bureau, State Board of Children's Guardians; C. Both free and boarding homes are used; D. Yes, by the Board of Children's Guardians and the Children's Bureau.

NEW YORK.—A. Very generally, when suitable homes are available; B. By poor law officials, private institutions, placing out agencies; C. Yes, usually as a preliminary to adoption or free home; D. Yes, inspected by State Board of Charity and also during "period of dependence" by officers responsible for placements.

NORTH CAROLINA.—A. Yes, to a limited but increasing extent; B. By the Children's Home Society; C. Not used; D. The Society supervises the children it places, no state supervision.

NORTH DAKOTA.—A. Yes in nearly every county; B. By the Catholic Orphanage and the State Children's Home Society; C. No boarding out; D. Fair, the lack of funds prevents frequent visits.

OHIO.—A. Practice varies, governed by the policy of institutions; B. County institutions are required to seek homes, some of the private children's homes have regularly employed agents for the purpose, a few associations are doing a small amount of exclusive child-placing work; C. To a very limited extent by private institutions; D. Nothing whatever under state regulation.

OREGON.—A. Yes; B. Several agencies. The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society of Portland is the only purely placing out agency in the state; C. Boarding out plan not used; D. Under no state control and the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society is the only one employing visitors.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A. Largely; B. Private agencies, except a few handled by County Directors or Overseers; C. Boarding plan largely used; D. No, save in a few cases the supervision seems to be totally inadequate.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—A. About 45 children placed out during year; B. The Children's Home Society; C. Not used; D. No report.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—A. Extensively; B. Children's Home Society; C. Very little boarding out; D. Some supervision by officers of the societies, no state control.

TEXAS.—A. Any one may place a child and no record is required, Maternity homes are in all large cities and dispose of illegitimate children; B. By the Texas Children's Aid Society and Buckner Orphans' Home, both reliable; C. Boarding out plan very little used; D. After-supervision is very limited, not under state regulation.

VERMONT.—A. Somewhat; B. By several private institutions; C. Only occasionally; D. Yes, by the officers of the institutions, not supervised by the state.

VIRGINIA.—A. To some extent; B. By Children's Home Society and three or four institutions; C. No; D. No, but the State Board of Charities has the matter of adequate supervision under consideration.

UTAH.—A. To some extent; B. By authority of Juvenile Court; C. Not at all; D. On the authority of the Juvenile Court by means of the probation officers.

WISCONSIN.—A. Practically all normal dependent children are placed in homes; B. By state agent of state institutions and agents of Home-Finding Societies; C. By Home-Finding Societies, temporarily, but very little; D. Yes, by the state agents.

ONTARIO.—A. Very extensively; B. By Children's Aid Societies; C. Only in shelter homes until foster homes are found; D. Yes, over 3,000 children are visited by state officials and agents of societies.

INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS

The following states conduct institutions for juvenile delinquents: Arkansas; California; Colorado; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Georgia; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Maine; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New Hampshire; New Jersey; New York; North Dakota; Ohio; Oregon; Pennsylvania; South Carolina; South Dakota; Texas; Vermont; Utah; Wiscon-

sin. Of the above, the following states have separate institutions for boys and for girls, the remainder having both sexes in one institution: California; Colorado; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Iowa; Kansas; Maine; Massachusetts; Minnesota (in the near future); Missouri; Nebraska; New Jersey; New York; Ohio; Wisconsin.

The following states send their juvenile delinquents to reformatory institutions, industrial schools, etc., of non-public ownership, paying for them as noted: Delaware, boys per capita, girls lump sum; Maryland, per capita from city and lump sum from state; New York, in addition to state institutions, per capita from towns, cities and counties; North Carolina, for white boys only, lump sum; Pennsylvania, per capita; Virginia, per capita; Ontario, per capita.

The support of the state institutions for juvenile delinquents is wholly by the state, except as follows: California, each county pays $1 per month per capita; when possible, parents are made to pay this; Colorado, girls' school collects 50 cents per capita from counties; Indiana, one-half maintenance cost collected from counties; Missouri, one school, for boys, supported by city of St. Louis; North Dakota, counties pay a per capita; Ohio, counties sending, or parents, pay for clothing; South Carolina, counties sending pay a per capita; Wisconsin, counties pay per capita weekly, $1 for boys, $2.50 for girls.

In addition to the state institutions proper and the industrial schools and houses of refuge, juvenile delinquents are sent to certain religious institutions and other child-helping agencies, as follows: California, many children are sent to private institutions with public per capita support; Colorado, the House of the Good Shepherd receives wayward girls, small appropriation from Associated Charities*; Connecticut, House of the Good Shepherd and Florence Crittenton Mission, care for wayward girls on per capita allowance from the state; District of Columbia, a few children are boarded in such institutions by the Board of

*The A. C. of Denver receives appropriations from the city and divides the money between various institutions, etc.

Children's Guardians at public expense; Illinois, both Catholic and non-Catholic children are sent to private institutions on per capita; Indiana, two private institutions receive semi-delinquent children on per capita from counties; Kentucky, some received by a convent, but no public support; Louisiana, one school of this class in New Orleans; Missouri, a few delinquent children are committed to private institutions in St. Louis, per capita $12 per month; New Jersey, the Catholic Protectory and the House of the Good Shepherd receive juvenile delinquents, supported by charity collections and labor of inmates; the Newark City Home for Truants, etc., is supported from city treasury; New York, "Protectories," "Farms," "Shelters" and "Asylums," usually under denominational auspices, receive juvenile delinquents on per capita from towns, cities and counties; Ohio, juvenile delinquents may be committed to non-public institutions, provided they are cared for without public expense; Oregon, the House of the Good Shepherd receives incorrigible and immoral girls, per capita, $7 per month from the state; Ontario, the Salvation Army occasionally takes a girl or two.*

JUVENILE COURTS

The plan of separating juvenile cases from the regular court business seems to prevail, to a greater or less extent, in the following states (in the cases indicated, special courts are provided; in others the judges hold juvenile sessions or hear juvenile cases in chambers): California; Colorado (special courts); Connecticut (two cities); Indiana (special court in Indianapolis); Massachusetts (special court in Boston); Illinois (special courts in Chicago and several of the larger cities); District of Columbia (special court); Kansas; Ohio (some special courts); Oregon ("special court in Portland"); South Dakota ("new law, not yet in effect"); Texas ("law, but no funds provided"); Iowa ("in about 70 per cent of counties"); Kentucky (special courts in three

*See on Page 287 as regards public support of private institutions for delinquent children in Great Britain.

cities); Maryland (special court in Baltimore); Minnesota (special courts in three larger cities, "new law just enacted to apply to whole state"); Maine ("some municipal and police courts hold juvenile sessions"); Missouri (special courts in St. Louis, Kansas City and St. Joseph); Nebraska (courts in Omaha and Lincoln); New Hampshire ("in ten cities and fourteen towns"); New Jersey (special courts in two counties); New York (special courts in the larger cities); Pennsylvania (in a number of counties); Utah (special courts in larger cities); Wisconsin (special court in Milwaukee); Ontario ("in all cities").

No Juvenile Courts in the following: Arkansas, Delaware; Georgia; Louisiana; North Carolina; North Dakota; South Carolina; Vermont; Virginia; New Brunswick. In North Dakota one judge has endeavored to carry out the idea.

Juvenile Courts deal with dependency as well as delinquency in the following states: California; Colorado; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Maryland; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Nebraska; New Hampshire; New York ("in some instances"); Ohio; Oregon; Pennsylvania; Utah.

The Juvenile Courts of the following states deal with delinquency only: Maine; Missouri; New Jersey; Texas; Wisconsin; Ontario.

Contributory delinquency is recognized and punished by Juvenile Courts in the following states: California; Colorado; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Kansas; Kentucky (not successfully); Maryland (where the Juvenile Court has jurisdiction); Massachusetts (cases of parents only); Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New Hampshire; New Jersey; New York (but usually not punished); Ohio; Oregon ("but Juvenile Court has no jurisdiction"); Texas; Utah; Wisconsin.*

Contributory dependency is recognized and dealt with by Juvenile Courts in the following: Colorado; Connecticut; Illinois; Indiana; Kansas; Kentucky; Maine; Maryland (by

*See on Page 299 list of states having contributory delinquency laws, with penalties.

the court, no law); Minnesota; Nebraska; New York ("too often ignored"); Ohio; Oregon; Pennsylvania ("only in cases of sending children out to beg"); Texas; Utah; Wisconsin.

Contributory dependency is not recognized in the following: California; District of Columbia; Iowa; Massachusetts; Missouri; New Hampshire; New Jersey; Ontario.

Probation work is done by special court officers paid by public funds, in California; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Iowa; Kansas; Maine; Maryland; Massachusetts; Missouri; New Hampshire; New Jersey; New York; Oregon; Pennsylvania; Utah; Wisconsin.

Probation officers, both paid and volunteer: Colorado; Illinois; Indiana; Kentucky; Minnesota; Nebraska; Ohio.

Volunteer probation officers only: Texas; Virginia; Ontario.

Volunteer probation committees to oversee probation officers are found in California and Pennsylvania.

JUVENILE PROBATION

In answer to the questions—

How far has the principle of probation been applied to juvenile offenders? And what has been the general success of the plan? the states report as follows:

No juvenile probation: Arkansas; Louisiana; North Carolina; South Carolina; South Dakota.

Very limited application: Maine ("successful where tried"); Texas (no report on success).

In the larger cities: California ("results good"); Virginia ("satisfactory"); Vermont ("results fair"); Iowa ("not properly applied").

Attempted in one judicial district by the Judge: North Dakota ("worked well").

In some counties: Pennsylvania ("results varying, still haphazard").

Applied only in connection with S. P. C. C. work: Delaware ("results very successful").

Applied to everything but felonies: Wisconsin ("successful").

Applied to one-fifth to one-third of delinquent children's cases: Missouri ("about 15 to 20 per cent. of failures").

Applied to many cases: Illinois ("successful").

Extensively applied: Connecticut ("worked well"); Georgia ("works well"); Kansas ("excellent"); Massachusetts ("successful in spots, irregularity due to weakness in character of some probation officers"); Minnesota ("highly successful when the personal service point of view has prevailed"); Nebraska ("good results"); New Hampshire ("generally successful"); New Jersey ("excellent"); Oregon ("not unqualified endorsement"); Ontario ("very successful when properly carried out").

Generally applied in children's cases: Colorado ("5 per cent. return to court"); District of Columbia ("good results"); Indiana ("very good, especially in the larger cities"); Kentucky ("quite successful"); Maryland ("successful"); New York ("results good"); Ohio ("seems satisfactory"); Utah ("very successful").

PROBATION OF ADULTS*

In reply to the questions—

How far has the principle of adult probation been applied? What have been the results? the answers by states are as follows:

No adult probation: Arkansas; Iowa; Louisiana; New Hampshire; North Carolina; South Carolina; South Dakota; Virginia.

Legislation now pending: Wisconsin.

Law recently enacted, not sufficiently tried: Nebraska; Ohio; Pennsylvania; Indiana.

Very limited application: Illinois ("success doubtful").

Law exists, no report on results: Connecticut; New York; Oregon; Ontario.

Law applies to drunkenness only: Georgia.

*See Page 270 on Probation of Adults.

Law applies only to contributory delinquency: Kentucky; Utah.

Law applies to all persons under 21, both for felonies and misdemeanors, and to all adults for contributory delinquency and misdemeanors: Colorado ("1 per cent. of cases are returned to the court").

Law applies to misdemeanors and contributory delinquency: District of Columbia.

Law applies to misdemeanors and felonies, except highest crimes, age limit 21; Kansas ("works admirably").

Law for first offenders under 30, no probation officers yet: Missouri (law works pretty well).

Law in operation: Maine ("successful as far as applied"); Maryland ("not much used but usually successful"); Massachusetts ("successful in spots, failures less obvious than with juvenile probation"); Minnesota (successful for some years without a law, now a law of last legislature); New Jersey and Vermont both say: "better success than with juvenile probation;" California (law in operation four years, results good).

SUSPENDED SENTENCE

In answer to the question—

If the state has not adopted the probation system, does the practice of release on suspended sentence prevail? the states answer as follows:

No: Arkansas; Virginia. Yes: North Carolina ("to a large extent, particularly with children's cases"); North Dakota ("juvenile delinquency cases"); Texas ("in corporation courts").

The following states which have adult probation, also use the suspended sentence: Colorado; Connecticut; District of Columbia; Illinois; Ohio; Maine ("particularly with juvenile offenders"); Maryland; New Hampshire; New Jersey; Ohio ("not so extensively used as before the probation law existed"); Pennsylvania ("not very common").

The suspended sentence appears to be in frequent use in New Brunswick.

PRISONS, REFORMATORIES FOR ADULTS, JAILS AND WORKHOUSES

The inquiry was designed to give some idea of the prison systems of the states reporting, particularly the way in which the sexes are separated; the states having the intermediate prison or reformatory for adults; the methods of convict labor employed in prisons, workhouses and jails; the states having workhouses for minor offenders, and the arrangements, where any exist, for the support of dependent families of prisoners.

Reformatories for Male Adults—The following states have these institutions in addition to states prison, the age limit in most cases being 30, and the crime exceptions being treason and murder: Colorado; Illinois; Indiana; Iowa; Kansas; Massachusetts (age limit 40); Minnesota (also receives adult females); New Jersey; New York; Ohio (first offenders only); Pennsylvania; Vermont (a "house of correction"); Wisconsin (first offenders under 30).

Women's Prisons—The following named states have separate prisons for women, but some others (see next list) have reformatory institutions for adult females: Indiana; Massachusetts; New York.

Reformatories for Female Adults—Nebraska (an "Industrial Home"); New York, Bedford (ages 16 to 30), Western House of Refuge for Women (ages 15 to 30); Ontario. The Women's Prisons of Indiana and Massachusetts are strictly of the reformatory kind.

Workhouses and Houses of Correction—The following states have workhouses in cities or counties for short-term convicts: Delaware (all convicts, no state prison); District of Columbia; Indiana (one county only); Maine (in cities); Maryland (in Baltimore); Massachusetts (in each county); Missouri (in two largest cities); New Hampshire; New Jersey (county penitentiaries); New York (five counties have penitentiaries, some cities have workhouses); North Carolina (county camps or workhouses in about half the counties, near-by counties sending prisoners to them); Ohio

(eight cities have workhouses); Pennsylvania (one workhouse and one house of correction); Texas; Wisconsin (five county workhouses).

Convict Labor System—In State Prisons: The following states use contract labor exclusively: Arkansas; Connecticut; Kentucky; Maryland; Missouri; Nebraska; New Hampshire; Oregon; Pennsylvania (but hand labor only); Vermont; Wisconsin. In the following named states the system in the state prisons is mixed, partly contract and partly state account plan: Indiana; Iowa; Kansas; Massachusetts; Minnesota (contract is "piece-price"); Ohio (state use only after January 1, 1911); South Dakota (contract is "piece-price"); Virginia (public account is road building); Ontario. In the following states the prisons use convict labor on state use or public account only: California; Colorado ("principally road building"); Illinois; Louisiana; Maine; New York; North Dakota; Utah. The lease system is found in the State Institutions of the following: North Carolina (partly); Texas.

Amount and Kind of Labor in Workhouses and Houses of Correction—The following states report: California, "very little, breaking stone"; Delaware, all able-bodied prisoners labor eight hours daily; District of Columbia, road building and on farm; Illinois, very little; Indiana, labor required by law, most prisoners employed; Georgia, in stockades and on streets; Louisiana, labor in city workhouse; Maine, prisoners are required to labor; Massachusetts, labor is supposed to be required; Missouri, labor is required in workhouses; New Hampshire, work on farms; New York, very little; North Carolina, work on highways; Ohio, contract labor used; Texas, those in workhouses are given option of labor on public roads whereby they earn 50 per cent reduction of sentence.

Labor in Jails—The following states reply None: Colorado, District of Columbia; Georgia; Kansas; Louisiana (except in New Orleans); Maryland; Nebraska; North Carolina; North Dakota; Ohio; South Dakota; Wisconsin. The follow-

ing states report that the law requires labor of sentenced prisoners, but most of them add that the law is poorly enforced: Arkansas; Connecticut (regular work in five of the ten county jails); Delaware; Illinois (very little); Indiana; Maine, in nearly all jails prisoners are required to labor; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri, in about 10 per cent. of the jails; New Hampshire, in one jail, the largest, prisoners are employed; New York, very little; New Jersey, in a few jails work is provided; Oregon, in one jail a stone crusher for ablebodied prisoners; Pennsylvania, very little; Vermont, required by law, but not enforced; Virginia, in a few counties prisoners from jail work on the streets; Utah, domestic work of the jail only; Wisconsin, no labor; Ontario, work required in all jails.

District Workhouse Plan—The nearest approach to this plan, so far, is in Delaware, where the Newcastle county workhouse receives prisoners sentenced for six months or more, from the other counties. In a few states minor offenders are sent to a city or county workhouse in another county, where labor is provided; one of the best examples of this is in Michigan, where the Detroit city workhouse receives many prisoners from other parts of the state. The plan of District Workhouses, operated by the state, is reported to be recognized as desirable in the following: California; Connecticut; Indiana; Georgia; Louisiana; Maine; Maryland; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New Hampshire; New Jersey; New York; Ohio; Oregon; Pennsylvania; Virginia; Utah; Wisconsin; and some efforts have been made in this direction in Indiana (where the plan now applies for women prisoners); Louisiana; Nebraska; New Jersey; New York.

Support of their dependent families, from earnings of prisoners is generally thought to be desirable; in the following states some efforts of the kind are reported: Delaware, prisoners make overtime and can use the money they earn at their option; District of Columbia, the families of men committed for non-support receive 50 cents per day; Iowa, men can earn overtime, payment for which is made on

their order; Louisiana, a law to this effect is expected; Maine, in a few cases in Portland 50 cents a day has been paid; Minnesota, authorized by law, rules not yet completed; New Jersey, this is part of the prison-reform program; Oregon, provided by law, in non-support cases, but not put in operation; South Dakota, a law to this effect has just been enacted; Wisconsin, prisoners are encouraged to send their earnings to their dependents, no law compelling this.

INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF DEFECTIVES

BLIND

The following states have State Schools for the Blind: Arkansas; Illinois; Indiana; Georgia; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Louisiana; Maine; Maryland; Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New York; North Dakota; Ohio; Oregon; South Dakota; Texas; Utah; Wisconsin; Ontario.

States as follows have state schools in which both blind and deaf are educated: California; Colorado; North Carolina; South Carolina; Virginia.

States in which blind children are educated at public expense in non-public institutions are as follows: Connecticut; District of Columbia; Massachusetts; New Hampshire; New Jersey; Pennsylvania; Vermont.

Industrial Homes for Adult Blind in California; Illinois; Wisconsin. In Delaware there is no state school for the blind but a state commission employs competent teachers to visit and instruct the blind in their homes; this plan is said to be quite successful. Similar work is being done by non-public agencies in other states, notably Massachusetts and New York.

DEAF

The states conducting State Schools for the Deaf exclusively (see under Blind for Deaf and Blind together) are Arkansas; District of Columbia; Illinois; Indiana; Georgia; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Louisiana; Maine; Maryland; Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New Jersey; North Carolina; North Dakota; Oregon; South Dakota; Utah; Wisconsin; Ontario.

The deaf are educated at public expense in non-public institutions in Connecticut; Massachusetts; New Hampshire; New York; Pennsylvania; Vermont.

FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC

The following states care for children of these classes together in the same institution: California; Illinois; Indiana; Iowa; Kansas; Kentucky; Maine; Maryland; Massachusetts; Minnesota; Missouri; Nebraska; New Hampshire; New York, three institutions and one building; North Dakota; Ohio; Oregon; Pennsylvania, two state and one semi-public institutions; South Dakota; Utah, special department of hospital for insane; Wisconsin; Ontario.

EPILEPTICS

States having institutions for epileptics are (in addition to school for feeble-minded): Indiana; Kansas; Massachusetts; Minnesota; New Jersey; New York; Ohio; Texas (no school for feeble-minded); Ontario.

CRIPPLED CHILDREN

The states making special provision for crippled children, at public expense, are as follows: Minnesota, a state hospital for crippled and deformed children; Nebraska, an orthopedic hospital; New York, hospital for crippled children. In some states special arrangements are made for the care of cripples by children's aid societies, etc., at the expense of counties or cities.

STATE CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES

CALIFORNIA.—The last State Conference was held at Oakland, September 27 to 30, 1908. Secretary, W. Almont Gates, 1025 The Merchants Exchange, San Francisco. Conference of 1909, not announced. Special emphasis was laid, at the 1908 Conference, on needs of a State Reformatory, and Home-placing of Dependent Children.

COLORADO.—The State Board of Charities and Correction of Colorado has inaugurated a semiannual meeting, asking all those interested in philanthropic work to attend. The last meeting was held at the State House, Denver, May 17, 1909. Officers are the same as those of the State Board of Charities and Correction. Special feature, mutual acquaintance and understanding between those conducting charitable and penal institutions.

CONNECTICUT.—The first Connecticut Conference will be held in November at Hartford. President, Rev. Flavel S. Luther. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury.

ILLINOIS.—The last State Conference was held at Rock Island, October 10 to 13, 1908. The next meeting will be in Peoria, October 9 to 12, 1909. Dr. Frank P. Norbury of Jacksonville is Secretary. Special features of the Conference are Public Hygiene, Medical and Nursing Service in State Hospitals, and the Education and Care of Blind Children.

INDIANA.—The Indiana State Conference held its last meeting at South Bend, October 17 to 20. The next meeting will be in Columbus, October 23 to 26, 1909. Secretary, Rev. W. S. Sigmund, Columbus.*

IOWA.—The last State Conference was held in Des Moines, January 20 to 22, 1909. The next meeting will be in Davenport, November 7 to 10, 1909. Secretary, Dr. C. W. Wassam, State University, Iowa City.

KANSAS.—The last State Conference was held at Wichita, November 22 to 24, 1908. The next meeting will be at Hutchinson, November, 1909. Rev. L. A. Halbert, Kansas City, Secretary. Special committees to report on Juvenile

*See Page 464 for particular report on this Conference.

Court System, Suspended Sentences and Paroles, Restriction of Marriage of Defectives and Criminals, and Abolition of Fee System.

KENTUCKY.—Last meeting at Frankfort, January 22 and 23, 1908. The next meeting will be at Louisville in the autumn of 1909. Secretary, Miss Louise Speed, 221 E. Walnut St., Louisville. Special features Prison Reform and Treatment of Insane.

MINNESOTA.—The Conference for 1909 will be held at Red Wing in November. Secretary, Miss Eleanor Hanson, 609 Baltimore Building, St. Paul.

MAINE.—The Maine State Conference of Charities met in Waterville, October 26, 27 and 28, 1908. The next meeting is to be in Bangor, October 16 to 19, 1909. Secretary, R. A. Jordan, Bangor.

MARYLAND.—The last meeting of the Maryland State Conference was in Baltimore, April 30 and May 1, 1908. The next will be in Baltimore in the autumn of 1909. H. Wirt Steele, 101 W. Saratoga St., Baltimore, is Secretary. This year the Conference will absorb the State Prison Conference and the State Conference on Industrial Education.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Massachusetts State Conference held its last meeting at Fall River, October 20 to 22, 1908. The next will be in Boston, October 19 to 21, 1909. Secretary, Seymour H. Stone, 48 Rutland St., Boston.

MISSOURI.—Last meeting at Fulton, November 19 and 20, 1908; next will be at Farmington, some time in November, 1909; Secretary, Prof. T. J. Riley, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The New Hampshire State Conference of Charities and Correction held its last meeting in Concord, February 3, 1909. The place and date of the next meeting have not been decided. Miss Caroline E. Evans of Concord is the secretary. The special features of Conferences held in the past have been State Care of the Feeble-minded (law enacted); State Care of the Insane (law enacted), State Sanatorium for consumptives (law enacted); a more stringent divorce law (law failed of passage); Juvenile Court

and Probation System (law enacted); State Workhouse for petty criminals (law failed of passage); and more systematic care of dependent children by placing them in family homes and providing subsequent supervision (law failed of passage).

NEW JERSEY.—The New Jersey State Conference held its last meeting at Trenton, February 18 to 20, 1909. The time and place of the next Conference have not been fixed. J. Byron Deacon of Paterson is the Secretary for this year. The special features of the Conference of 1909 were an excellent exhibit, Preventive Work by Organized Charity, Poor and Alms, Social Hygiene, Reformatory Education, Preventive Work by Municipalities and Labor's Attitude Toward Charities and Correction.

NEW YORK.—The New York State Conference of Charities held its last meeting at Elmira, November 17 to 19, 1908. The next meeting will be at Albany, November 16 to 19, 1909. Hon. Frank Kunzman is the Secretary; address, Foot of E. Twenty-sixth St., New York City.

The "Annual Convention of County Superintendents of the Poor" held its last meeting at Thousand Islands, June 22 to 25, 1909. Secretary, Hon. J. W. Ives, Java Village, N. Y.

OHIO.—The eighteenth annual session of the Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction was held October 6 to 9, 1908, at Sandusky. The next meeting will be in Canton, November 5 to 8, 1909. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, of Columbus. This Conference is under the direction of the Board of State Charities. An annual state appropriation of $250 has been secured. Public institution officials invited to the Conference and attending the sessions are entitled to necessary expenses.

OREGON.—The last meeting of the Oregon State Conference of Charities was held at Portland, October 11 to 13, 1908. The time and place of the next meeting have not been decided upon. Secretary, Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, 305 Jefferson St., Portland.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities held its last meeting at West Chester,

October 13 to 15, 1908. The next meeting will be in Bradford, about the middle of October, 1909. L. C. Colborn of Somerset is Corresponding Secretary of the Association. The Association is almost entirely composed of the county directors of the poor and representatives of the various Children's Aid Societies, particularly from the rural districts.

The Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction will hold its initial meeting at Harrisburg, December 6 to 8. F. H. Nibecker of Glen Mills is chairman of the committee on organization.

RHODE ISLAND.—The first Rhode Island Conference will be held in Providence during November, 1909. President, Hon. Darius Baker. Secretary, James Minnick, Providence.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The first South Carolina State Conference will meet at Columbia, November 18th and 19th. For information address Rev. A. T. Jamison, Greenwood, S. C.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The last meeting of the South Dakota Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Sioux Falls, April 14 to 16, 1909. The date and location of the next meeting are yet to be fixed by the Executive Committee. J. H. King of Parker, S. D., is Secretary. The special feature of the Conference of 1909 was the attention given to the Condition of Jails and Poorhouses.

VIRGINIA.—The last meeting of the Virginia State Conference was held in Lynchburg, May 17, 1909. Secretary, W. Reginald Walker, American National Bank building, Richmond.

CANADA.—The Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction held its last meeting in Toronto, November 25, 1908. The next will be in Toronto, also, October 19, 20 and 21, 1909. F. M. Nicholson, Parliament buildings, Toronto, Secretary. The discussions on Prison Reform have been the most interesting features of the Conference.

Appendix

SYLLABUS OF INSTRUCTION IN VARIOUS TRADES GIVEN IN ENGLISH INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.*

BAKERS.

Theoretical.

Lesson.

1. The grain of wheat.
2. The structure of a grain of wheat.
3. Principal wheat growing countries.
4. Milling.
5. Classification of flours.
6. Constituents of flour.
7. Ash.
8. Fat.
9. Gluten and starch.
10. Soluble constituents.
11. The carbohydrates.
12. Cellulose.
13. Starch.
14. Description of starch granules.

Lesson.

15. Dextrine or British gum.
16. Maltose or malt sugar.
17. Cane sugar and milk sugar.
18. Glucose or grape sugar.
19. Hydrolysing agents.
20. Estimating color of flour.
21. Water absorbing power of flour.
22. Yeast.
23. Substances necessary for nourishment of yeast.
24. Substances unfavorable to yeast action.
25. Effect of temperature on yeast.
26. Action of oxygen on yeast.
27. Names of fermentations.

Practical

Lesson.

1. Yeast brewing.
2. Doughing operations.
3. Scaling, moulding and proving.
4. Baking the bread.
5. Cooling and storage of bread.

Lesson.

6. Souring the bread.
7. Flour blend.
8. Yeast testing.
9. Shapes of loaves.
10. Holes in bread.

BLACKSMITHS

First Year

Lesson. 1st Quarter.

1. Elementary.
2. Importance of iron ore.
3. Methods of working iron.
4. Materials—Manufacture.
5. Tools, bellows, variety.
6. Manufacture of wrot. iron.
7. Iron, how brought, etc.
8. Tools, hammers.
9. Methods in making staples.
10. Bars and bundles, sizes, etc.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 2d Quarter.

1. Cost of iron bars, etc.
2. Anvils, etc.
3. How to make pipe hooks, etc.
4. Qualities of iron.
5. Punches.
6. How to make a hook.
7. Bands of iron.
8. Setts.
9. Methods in use of setts.
10. Hoop iron coach.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 3d Quarter.

1. Wire—How manufactured.
2. Vises—Care of same.
3. Making shutlink.
4. Faulty iron.
5. Drilling machines.
6. Drills—Explanatory.
7. Iron plates.
8. Tongs.
9. How to make link, etc.
10. Iron sheets.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 4th Quarter.

1. Sheets. Gauges.
2. Files.
3. Filing a nut.
4. Sheets and plates.
5. The Lathe—Simple.
6. Simple turning.
7. Mild steel.
8. Lathe tools.
9. Welding.
10. Mild steel.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

*See "The Delinquent Child in England," by Walter Lindley (page 279).

Second Year

Lesson. 1st Quarter.

1. Steels.
2. Management of fire.
3. Making a hot sett.
4. Shear steel.
5. Stocks and dies.
6. Making a cold sett.
7. Cast steel.
8. Dies and taps.
9. Making a drill.
10. Spring steels.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 2d Quarter.

1. Steels.
2. Lathe—Slide rest.
3. Turning a taper.
4. Air hardening steel.
5. Lathe boring.
6. Forging a bolt.
7. Cast iron properties.
8. Lathe—Use of back gear.
9. Forging a nut.
10. Cast iron drilling, etc.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 3d Quarter.

1. Copper, ductility.
2. Bench—Tools.
3. Chasing a thread.
4. Copper brazing.
5. Lathe—Simple trains.
6. Forging angles.
7. Brass alloys.
8. Use of blow pipe.
9. Flat right angles.
10. Brass—Simple casting.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 4th Quarter.

1. Tin.
2. Lathe—Simple turning.
3. Brazing a key.
4. Solder—How made.
5. Lathe—Simple trains.
6. Forging eye bolts.
7. Tin plates.
8. Tinman's tools.
9. Forging tees.
10. Tin plates cast.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Supplementary to above: Lessons are given on any special work in hand in shop, on horse shoes, hoofs, machines, etc. Zinc or tin plate work incidental to work in a general smith's shop.

Third Year.

Lesson. 1st Quarter.

1. Lead manufacture.
2. Lead working—Tools.
3. Methods in lead work.
4. Iron rivets, names, etc.
5. Rivet snaps and draws.
6. Hand riveting.
7. Making a hard solder.
8. Ratchets and braces.
9. Methods in use of ratchet.
10. Iron screws, sizes, etc.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 2d Quarter.

1. Rivets—Sizes and gauges.
2. The lathe compound.
3. Angles of slide rest—Tools.
4. Bolts, names, variety of thread.
5. The lathe compound.
6. Turning a thread.
7. Screws, studs, etc.
8. Squares, bevels, etc.
9. Turning square on thread.
10. Nails used by smith.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 3d Quarter.

1. Ash handles, prong forks, etc.
2. Forging a pair of tongs.
3. Handling tools.
4. Fluxes, resin, etc.
5. Making a hammer.
6. Hardening, etc.
7. Case hardening.
8. Bench tools.
9. Making a hammer.
10. Gas threads.
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Lesson. 4th Quarter.

1. Gas barrel tubes.
2. Gas tongs.
3. Methods in fitting.
4. Steam and hydraulic fittings.
5. Red lead joints.
6. Brass fittings in gas work.
7. Rain water castings.
8. Testing pumps, etc.
9. Laying a gas main.
10. Repairs—Water taps, ball taps, e
11. Recapitulation on materials.
12. Recapitulation on methods.
13. Recapitulation on tools.

Supplementary: Lessons on reading gas meters.
Making and caulking water pipe joints.
Use of safety valves.
Uses of oil in work.
Lessons on gas mantles and burners, etc.

This didactic work is gone over time and again until the child is thoroughly familiar with it.

TAILORS

Lesson. First Course.

1. Introductory account of tools and woolens.
2. Sewing and pressing, cottons and woolens.
3. Mixtures and unions in various cloths.
4. Machine sewing. Machine parts and their use.
5. Sewing: Silk, cotton thread. Silk and cotton in piece.
6. Linen, jute, braids, buttons and general tailors' trimmings.
7. The principles of sewing, various stitches and their use.
8. The principles of pressing, shrinking and dampening.
9. Parts and points of various trousers, various terms in use.
10. Parts and points of coats and vests and general account of garments.
11. The principles of repairing.
12. Recapitulation and extension of previous lessons.

Lesson. Second Course.

1. General and extended account of materials, tools and terms.
2. Sewing and pressing—applied.
3. Measures and measuring for trousers and breeches.
4. Application of measures to garments or pattern.
5. Trousers making, principles applied.
6. Vest making and measuring, simple S. B., no roll.
7. Trousers making, pressing and manipulation.
8. Coat making and measuring, lounges; principles of overcoats.
9. Lounges, fit and style and general utility, how produced.
10. Recapitulation.

Lesson. Third Course.

1. Account of garments worn by various grades of society.
2. Scales, sizes and proportion.
3. The uses of various materials, make, quality and quantities.
4. Cost of materials and production of various garments.
5. Various methods of production.
6. Cost of materials, profits, discounts.
7. Measures and points to be noticed in cutting.
8. Measures, scales, graduation and block pattern cutting.
9. Trousers, drafting to measure, proportionate sizes.
10. Vest, drafting to measure, proportionate sizes.
11. Coat, drafting to measure, proportionate sizes.
12. Recapitulation.

Lesson. Fourth Course.

1. Cutting—Various methods in use.
2. Cutting coats and vests by patterns and measurements.
3. Cutting and producing by shoulder, direct or breast measurements.
4. Cutting trousers by side, center or front construction line.
5. Inlays, inturns and allowances in making up.
6. Drafting to scale. (Drawing books.)
7. Drafting to scale on paper or cloth full size.
8. Drafting to scale S. B., no collar vest.
9. Drafting on cloth or paper, full size, vest.
10. Disproportion and its difficulties (How to arrange for).
11. Recapitulation.

CARPENTERS

Course A

Lecture. 1st Quarter.

1. Elementary lessons on kinds of wood grains.
2. Tools—How to use saw, plane and chisels.
3. Simple methods of work.
4. Nature and properties of timber.
5. Tools—How to use rule for measurements.
6. Preparing timber for bench work.
7. Recapitulation—Materials.
8. Recapitulation—Methods.
9. Recapitulation—Tools.
10. Nature and properties of timber, continued.
11. Tools—Use of winding strips and squares.
12. Methods of gauging and shooting stuff to width and thickness.
13. Setting out work. No. 1.

Lecture. 2d Quarter.

1. Timber—Seasoning, decay and preservation.
2. Tools—How to set and sharpen.
3. Methods—Scale drawing.
4. Timber—No. 1 continued.
5. Tools—Mortise gauge.
6. Methods, sawing to gauge lines and shoulder lines.
7. Recapitulation—Materials.
8. Recapitulation—Methods.
9. Recapitulation—Tools.
10. Timber, structure, classification.
11. Tools—Saw tenon, dovetail.
12. Methods—Glue-jointing.
13. Setting out work. No. 2.

Lecture. 3d Quarter.

1. Timber, measurements and sorts.
2. Tools—Use of brace and center bit.
3. Methods—Testing and truing up work.
4. Timber—Structure and classification.
5. Tools—Use of screwdrivers and awls.
6. Methods of cramping work.
7. Recapitulation—Materials.
8. Recapitulation—Tools.
9. Recapitulation—Methods.
10. Timber—No. 4 continued.
11. Tools—Hammers and mallets.
12. Methods—Mortise and tenon by hand.
13. Setting out work. No. 3.

Lecture. 4th Quarter.

1. Materials—Nails, cut and wrought.
2. Tools—Mortise—Machine chisels.
3. Timber—Structure and classification.
4. Timber—Structure and classification.
5. Tools—How to set and use plow.
6. Methods—Use of plow and fillister.
7. Recapitulation—Materials.
8. Recapitulation—Tools.
9. Recapitulation—Methods.
10. Materials—Clout and wire nails.
11. Tools — Sash fillister — Rebate planes.
12. Methods—Angles, mikeing.
13. Setting out work. No. 4.

Course B

Lecture. 1st Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber imported.
2. Tools—Beading planes.
3. Methods of sharpening and using beading planes.
4. Timber—Structure and classification, parts.
5. Tools—Hollow.
6. Methods of sharpening and use of.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Nails, rosehead, fine clout.
11. Tools—Sash planes.
12. Methods—Sharpening and use of sash planes.
13. Materials — Timber. Standard thickness of.

Lecture. 2d Quarter.

1. Timber—Structure and classification.
2. Tools—Bow-saw. Pad-saw.
3. Methods—Sharpening and using bow-saw and pad-saw.
4. Materials—Nails, floor brad, joining brad.
5. Tools—Gauges, joiner and scribing.
6. Methods—Explanation how to use the gauge.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Tin tacks, Flemish tacks.
11. Tools—Spoke shave, use of.
12. Methods—Tongue joints feather.
13. Materials—Screws, countersink, brass.

Lecture. 3d Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber—How to cut baulk planks. Sticks.
2. Tools—Straight edge spirit-level. Plumb line. Chalk line.
3. Methods—Floors, sleepers, laying of.
4. Timber—Structure and classification.
5. Tools—Sliding level, mitre square, mitre template.
6. Methods—Scraping joints. Straps.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Timber—Sash frames.
11. Tools—Cooper's croye shave.
12. Methods—Pail making, of.
13. Materials—Screws. Countersinking—brass.

Lecture. 4th Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber. Making flooring.
2. Tools—Cooper's compass.
3. Methods—Sliding sashes, of.
4. Timber—Structure and classification.
5. Tools—Used in hanging sashes.
6. Methods—Making casement frames, of.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Butt hinges.
11. Tools used in fitting butt hinges.
12. Methods, fitting butt hinges.
13. Materials—Screws. Japanned. Galvanized.

Course C

Lecture. 1st Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber sold in quantities of stack load.
2. Tools—Axes and wedged tools.
3. Methods—Technical operations of joinery.
4. Materials—Timber—Structure and classification.
5. Tools for gluing up joiners' work.
6. Methods, gluing up and cleaning off joiners' work.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Timber in making framed doors.
11. Tools—Augers, twist bits, taper bits.
12. Methods of making sash doors; plain panneled doors.
13. Materials—Bolts, barrels, tower, cupboard.

Lecture. 2d Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber, quality and brands of.
2. Tools—Lathe gauges, chisels, calipers.
3. Methods—In use of lathe.
4. Materials—Lock mortise, rim, dead lever for doors.
5. Tools used in fitting locks.
6. Methods of preparing doors for mortise lock.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Timber used in making gates.
11. Tools required in hanging gates.
12. Methods of hanging gates.
13. Materials—Brass bolts, flush cranked.

Lecture. 3d Quarter.

1. Materials—Window fastenings, sash casements, sash cord, stays.
2. Tools—Circular saw, use of.
3. Methods—Technical terms as applied operation of joining.
4. Materials—Timber for roofing.
5. Tools in use of cutting roof timber.
6. Methods, setting out roof, of.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Suffolk and Norfolk latches. Night latches.
11. Tools—Shoulder plane, Badger plane, compass plane.
12. Methods — Rebating, dovetailing, clamping, housing.
13. Materials—Blind fitting, window.

Lecture. 4th Quarter.

1. Materials—Timber for staircases.
2. Tools used in fixing staircases.
3. Methods—Setting out and construction of staircases.
4. Materials for making wheelbarrows.
5. Tools used in fitting and fixing joining work.
6. Methods as applied to the fixing door joints.
7. Recapitulation of lessons on materials.
8. Recapitulation of lessons on tools.
9. Recapitulation of lessons on methods.
10. Materials—Timber, structure and classification.
11. Tools used in working cornice moulding.
12. Methods—Mitering, projecting cornices and mouldings.
13. Materials—Staircases, Newells and handrails.

APPENDIX B

STATE BOARDS: SUPERVISORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE

In Order of Establishment.

DATE.	STATE.	SUPERVISORY	ADMINISTRATIVE
1847	N. Y.		Prisons
1863	Mass.	General	
1867	Ohio (April 17)	General	
*1867	N. Y. (May 23)	General (amended 1889)	
1869	N. C. (Re-est. 1889)	General	
1869	Ill. (April 9)	General (reorg. '09)	
1869	Pa.	General	
1869	R. I.		Combined
1871	Wis. (changed 1891)	General	
1871	Mich.	General	
1873	Conn.	General	[bined
1873	Kan. (reorg. 1905)		Charity and lunacy com-
1877	Neb.		Combined
1883	N. J.	Children's Guardians	
1883	Minn. (abolished '01, re-est. 1907)	General	
*1883	Pa.		Lunacy (Committee)
1886	Md.		Lunacy
1889	Ind.	General	[til 1904)
*1889	N. Y.		Lunacy (Local bds. un-
1890	S. D.		Combined
1890	Wyo.		Combined
1891	Wis.		Combined
1891	Ore. (abolished '93)	General	
1891	Colo.	General	[bined
1893	Ark.		Charity and lunacy com-
1893	Mont.	General	
1894	Ariz.		Combined
1895	N. H.	Charity	
*1895	N. Y.	Prisons	
1895	Tenn.	General	
1897	Mo.	General	
1897	Wash.		Combined
*1898	Mass.	Lunacy	
*1898	Mass.		Prisons
1898	Ky.		Prisons
1898	Iowa		Combined
1899	N. J.	Children's Guardians	
1900	D. C.	General	
*1900	Md.	Charity	[cational features
1901	Minn.		Combined, except edu-
*1901	Neb.	General	
1903	Cal.	General	
*1903	Cal.		Lunacy (partial)
*1904	N. Y.		Charity (fiscal only)
1904	La.	General	
*1905	N. J.	General (1 Comr.)	[bined
*1906	Ky.		Charity and lunacy com-
1908	Va.	General	
1908	Okla.	General (1 Comr.)	
*1909	Okla.		Combined
*1909	Ill.		Combined

*Means new board additional to one or more existing in the state.

Minutes of the Meetings

OPENING MEETING, WEDNESDAY, JUNE 9, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by Mr. Ansley Wilcox, chairman of the local committee, in the following words:

MR. WILCOX: Ladies and Gentlemen—On behalf of the Local Committee of Arrangements, of which I have been the chairman, it is my duty to call you to order for this opening session of the Thirty-Sixth National Conference of Charities and Correction in the United States.

As we look over this assemblage of people, representing the best thought and the best living of our own city, and of men and women from all over the country who are leaders in the study of social problems, and in the work of improving social conditions and uplifting the human race, our committee can feel that its work has been done, and it is time for us to turn over the Conference to its appointed officers. Only the details of the daily occurrences during the next week remain to be attended to, and these are in the hands of competent sub-committees.

I have not been asked to make a speech, and do not intend to volunteer one. But I take this occasion to express hearty thanks on behalf of the community, and from myself personally, to those of our people, and there are many of them, who have responded to the summons and have taken up portions of the labor of preparing for this Conference, as members of the executive committee, and chairman and members of the various sub-committees, and in other capacities. None who have been called upon have refused without good reason, and all have done their parts in the work, which has not been light, with ability and efficiency. And on behalf of the committees I want to thank the people of Buffalo, the newspapers and newspaper men first of all, but this expression extends over the entire community, for the generous and whole-souled way in which they have responded to our calls for aid and support, financially and otherwise. The committee has been made to feel that the people of Buffalo appreciate the opportunity which this Conference offers to them, and that they will get the full benefit from it.

Buffalo has not forgotten that the National Conference of Charities and Correction met here once before, in the year 1888, when the attendance was four hundred or five hundred, marking the then high-water mark, and the meeting was the most successful one up to that time. We believe now that the latest record of fifteen hundred registered delegates, which was made at Philadelphia two years ago, will be broken by the present attendance, and that the results of the Conference will justify the presence of so many delegates.

We are not boasting of our local charities. Although we are proud of them, we are conscious that there is room for improvement, and we anticipate that they will all gain inspiration and new strength during the coming week. It is always to be remembered that Buffalo was the cradle of the charity organization movement in this country, having founded the first American Charity Organization Society in 1877. With this movement the Conference of Charities has always been closely associated.

To our guests, the visiting members of the Conference, let me say a word. Our people have received those who have come, and will receive the others yet to come, with warm hearts and attentive minds. We are ready to sit at the feet of wisdom, and to gather what we may of new ideas in social philosophy, and to learn what we may of new methods in

social and philanthropic and correctional work; and we are ready to give what we may of hospitality, hoping to add something to the pleasures of your meeting, and will do what we may to aid you, now and hereafter, in the great effort for the betterment of the human race.

I will now call upon the mayor of Buffalo to say a few words of formal welcome.

HON. JOHN ADAM: Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen—To the members of your association who have come here to take part in this Conference—and some have come from long distances—on behalf of the city I extend a most hearty welcome. So far as Buffalo is ours it is yours. Personally, I am glad you are meeting here; I know there are many people happy because of your coming, and I trust you will all be glad you came. The local committee has been busy making arrangements for the event, which I hope will be found satisfactory. I am sure you will discover, if you have not known it before, that Buffalo is rather an attractive city. On account of its location it has always been of some importance; its progress has been steady up to date, and it looks today as if its development would be greater and more rapid than at any period in its past history. There is a great future for Buffalo. I will not dwell upon its advantages, and will say just a word or two on the social work it is doing.

There has always been a coterie of men and women in Buffalo engaged in philanthropic work and in the betterment of our civic government, but within the last few years there has been a great and growing interest in all sorts of social questions, and the most gratifying feature of it is that our young men and women—our young club men and young society women—have with great ardor and sincerity taken upon themselves the duty of engaging in work for the good of all classes in our community.

I cannot account for it. Whether it is a process of evolution, I don't know, but undoubtedly there is a new spirit being manifested, operating and bearing fruit. The injunction "Bear ye one another's burdens" is being followed to a greater extent than ever before. The common good is also being recognized in many ways by the city authorities. Libraries and art galleries are being contributed to by public funds, new parks are being created, playgrounds for children furnished, school children are being medically inspected, juvenile courts and juvenile detention homes established, many reform agencies set a-going. Private enterprises are multiplying. I ask your attention to a list of institutions doing social work in Buffalo, which will be placed in your hands. It speaks volumes.

There you have the chief reason why we are glad you are here. We want to learn from you. Many of you have had large experience, and your advice is valuable. We want to receive encouragement. We recognize that we have a duty to our neighbors, and desire to know how it can be best performed. So we welcome you with heart and soul.

MR. WILCOX: There is one absentee tonight, whom we all regret to miss, and who regrets his own absence even more than we do. I refer to our leading citizen of the state, the Governor of New York, who expected to be here, but who has been necessarily detained. I have from him a letter which he has asked me to read.

> Dear Mr. Wilcox: I cordially appreciate your invitation to attend the National Conference of Charities and Correction to be held at Buffalo this week and I greatly regret that my engagements make it impossible for me to be present. It is difficult to overestimate the advantages of these meetings, not simply with respect to the practical suggestions they bring forth, but particularly because of the inspiration they afford. I believe that the most significant feature of present-day conditions is not the opportunity for, or zeal and acumen in, the pursuit of individual gain, but the enhanced interest in philanthropy

and the keen desire to extend and perfect charitable and reformatory agencies. It is gratifying to note how many are contributing their thought and work to this end and are finding through varied organizations the means of social service.

I wish again to express my deep appreciation of these activities, and my earnest desire so far as lies in my power to promote their success. Permit me through you to extend a cordial welcome to all those who attend the Conference. I remain,

Very sincerely yours,

CHARLES E. HUGHES.

In memory of the Conference of Charities and Correction which was held in Buffalo in 1888, I now present to your president a gavel marked "Conference of Charities and Correction, Buffalo, July 5-11, 1888, Charles S. Hoyt, President." This is presented by the son of Dr. Hoyt to Mr. Bicknell for use in this Conference.

The local committee will now step aside, and the further conduct of this meeting of the Conference is in charge of your president, Mr. Bicknell, whom I need not introduce to you.

President Bicknell here assumed the chair.

THE PRESIDENT: Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference—I have thought this evening I would speak for a little while upon a subject which I trust may have some points of interest for this Conference, the subject of disaster relief and its problems.

Mr. Bicknell then read the President's annual address, entitled "Disaster Relief and Its Problems." (Page 1.)

THE PRESIDENT: I have the unexpected pleasure tonight of introducing to you Sir Samuel Chisholm, for years Lord Provost of the city of Glasgow, Scotland, which office corresponds to the office of a mayor of a United States city.

Sir Samuel is here as a visitor, the guest of Mayor Adam. He has been for many years a leader in social reform movements in Glasgow. I have the privilege of asking Sir Samuel to speak to you for a few moments.

SIR SAMUEL CHISHOLM: Mr. Chairman, Mayor Adam, Ladies and Gentlemen—I reached Buffalo tonight in the gloaming, and in less than forty minutes found myself in the midst of this great concourse. I was absolutely ignorant of the fact of such a Conference as this being in session at this time. But when I came within this hall and saw this great gathering of men and women with faces beaming with earnestness and enthusiasm and intelligence and zeal to address themselves to these great problems, I felt an uplifting of myself. Such a gathering is the heralding of a better day not only for our more unfortunate brethren, but for society at large; a day when the doctrine of the brotherhood of man and all the duties and the claims which that doctrine implies, will not only be a part of our orthodox social creed, but an impelling force of power in our daily life, guiding and controlling it in all our dealings with those who are less fortunate than we.

We have listened tonight to a most impressive and illuminating address on the subject of great calamities, overwhelming in their magnitude, and the problems which such calamities involve and the best methods of dealing with them. I am sure I echo the feeling of every one in this gathering when I say that we have been greatly moved, and feel ourselves greatly indebted for this address, so comprehensive and so impressive.

But, ladies and gentlemen, I am sure we are all sincerely desirous that when any such great calamity occurs we shall be as far as possible distant from its seat. But if we are remote, there is laid at our own door

and within our own reach abundant opportunity for dealing with the objects of our compassionate regard.

It has been said that for some years I was Lord Provost of Glasgow. That is true; and I am just as proud of Glasgow as Mayor Adam is of Buffalo, or any other mayor of his own city. It would be a delight to me to refer to one or two points of the treatment of kindred subjects in my city, but I must forbear and not trespass on your patience except to express the hope that I may have the opportunity of meeting some of the ladies and gentlemen who are so deeply interested in these subjects of vast importance.

After announcements by the local committee and the Secretary the Conference adjourned.

FIRST GENERAL SESSION

THURSDAY, JUNE 10, 8 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by the President, who announced the Committee on Organization, as follows: Sherman C. Kingsley, Chicago (Chairman); W. Almont Gates, San Francisco; Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, Philadelphia; Dr. Thomas D. Osborne, Louisville; O. E. Darnall, Washington; Eugene T. Lies, Minneapolis; Mrs. John M. Glenn, New York; Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston; George B. Robinson, New York.

MR. WOODS: I desire to present the following resolution, and ask for its immediate consideration:

> The National Conference of Charities and Correction at its thirty-sixth session records its profound and humble sense of gratitude for the long, prodigiously fruitful and triumphantly ended service of Dr. Edward Everett Hale. There is not a single branch of endeavor for the fuller and better life of men, women and children in America, and indeed throughout the world, in which he has not for more than half a century been a powerful leader? In each part of his great life work his contact with the subject has been most varied and intimate. Throughout the whole of his career he has instructed the people with regard to all our social problems from the pulpit, the platform and the editorial chair, as well as through his books, some of which are landmarks in the progress of the nation.
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> In the days beyond the memory of the present generation, he was foremost among those who were engaged at once in righting a great human wrong and conserving the loyal unity of the American people. To us of the present he has been known as participating actively up to the time of his death in some of the most vital phases of the forward human movements of today. Edward Everett Hale has personified the spirit which this Conference endeavors to strengthen and advance. As his great presence suggesting the rugged grandeur of the granite hills passes from among us, his memory becomes one of the chief treasures of this ever-growing fellowship.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

DR. JEFFREY R. BRACKETT of Boston said: A vice-president of this Conference, who long has been identified with social advance in New York City, would be here today but for the infirmities of age. Let us send to William Pryor Letchworth a hearty greeting. I make it as a motion.

The motion of Mr. Brackett was seconded and carried.

THE PRESIDENT: The program of this evening deals with the subject of Families and Neighborhoods, and will be in charge of the chairman of the Committee on Families and Neighborhoods, Mr. Robert A. Woods of Boston.

Mr. Woods then assumed the chair and read his report as chairman of the Committee on Families and Neighborhoods in the form of an address entitled "The Neighborhood and the Nation." (Page 101.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We shall now have the pleasure of listening to Mr. Francis H. McLean, who will speak to us upon some social problems of the smaller cities.

Mr. McLean read a paper entitled "Social Problems in Smaller Cities." (Page 107.)

THE CHAIRMAN: It is no small thing to add a new commandment to the moral law. Mrs. Florence Kelley, the executive officer and one of the leaders of the Consumers' League, will tell you what the commandment is—Mrs. Florence Kelley.

Mrs. Kelley delivered an address on "The Family and Woman's Wage." (Page 118.)

THE PRESIDENT: When I first attended the National Conference of Charities in 1893 I met one of the veterans and pioneers of the National Conference, Mr. Frank B. Sanborn of Massachusetts. He is here, and I know we shall be pleased to have a few words from him.

Mr. Sanborn made a brief address (page 122), after which the meeting adjourned.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION

FRIDAY, JUNE 11, 10:30 A. M.

THE PRESIDENT: The subject of our discussion this morning is statistics in various interesting phases. I have pleasure in turning this meeting over to Mr. Koren, chairman of the Standing Committee on Statistics, and I take pleasure in introducing him to you.

Mr. Koren assumed the chair and delivered his report as chairman of the Committee on Statistics. (Page 363.)

THE CHAIRMAN: If there is any business that has statistics as its fundamental basis, it is the insurance business, and I take great pleasure in introducing the next speaker, who has lately made a study of the question of insurance in its present phase, Mr. Lee K. Frankel.

Mr. Frankel read a paper entitled "Industrial Insurance" (page 369), which was discussed by several members. (Page 381.)

Mr. Homer Folks delivered an address on "Statistics Relating to Children" (page 383), after which the meeting adjourned.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION

FRIDAY, JUNE 11, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by the President, who announced the Committee on Resolutions, as follows: Mr. John M. Glenn, Chairman, New York; Hon. William H. DeLacy, Washington, D. C.; Miss Mary McDowell, of Chicago.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now listen to the report of the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting, of which Mr. Timothy Nicholson is chairman.

The Secretary read the report of the Committee on Time and Place, as follows:

> The Committee on Time and Place was called to order at 12:30 o'clock today by the Secretary, who explained the purpose of the meeting. Roll call of the members was had by states. Timothy Nicholson of Indiana was chosen chairman and Charles P. Kellogg, Connecticut, Secretary. It was voted that invitations for the Conference of 1910 should be received in alphabetical order of states. Dr. Lindley of California presented the invitation of Los Angeles. Rabbi Friedman of Colorado presented an invitation from Denver. Mr. Williams of Michigan presented an invitation from Detroit. Mr. W. H. McClain of Missouri presented an invitation from St. Louis, and Mr. C. F. Weller presented an invitation from Pittsburg.
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> The Committee then proceeded to vote on place of meeting. Upon the first ballot one vote was cast for Pittsburg; one for Los Angeles; eight for Denver, and twenty-two for St. Louis. On motion the vote was made unanimous for St. Louis, and the exact time of meeting was left to the executive committee to fix.

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted.

THE PRESIDENT then introduced Dr. J. M. Murdoch of Polk, Pa., who assumed the chair and read the report of the Committee on Defectives. (Page 64.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I have not touched upon the matter of the care of the insane in my report, because that will be amply treated by one whom you all know, an old friend of the Conference who needs no introduction to you, Mr. Frank B. Sanborn of Massachuetts.

Mr. Sanborn read a paper entitled "Progress in the Care of the Insane." (Page 67.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Pennsylvania is engaged in building a model hospital for the criminal insane. Dr. Thomas C. Fitzsimmons, superintendent of the State Hospital for the Criminal Insane at Farview, Pa., will tell us about that institution.

Dr. Fitzsimmons read a paper entitled "The Care of the Criminal Insane." (Page 78.)

THE CHAIRMAN: About fifty years ago a new epoch was brought about in the housing of insane by Dr. Kirkbride of Pennsylvania. Dr. Kirkbride elaborated or conceived the plan which bears his name, and which was a great improvement over the form of hospitals for the insane then in existence. But after fifty years more we are entering into a new epoch, and now we are building on the village or colony plan. One which is to be a perfect example of this plan is Letchworth Village, and we will hear about it from one of the commissioners appointed by the Governor of New York to establish it, who is the son of Dr. Kirkbride—Mr. Franklin Kirkbride.

Mr. Kirkbride read a paper entitled "Letchworth Village; New York State's New Institution for Defectives." (Page 85.)

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

SATURDAY, JUNE 12, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by the President, who introduced Miss Jane Addams of Chicago as chairman of the Committee on Immigrants. Miss Addams read the report of the committee, (Page 213.)

Prof. Jenks of Cornell University read a paper entitled "Racial Problems Involved in Recent Immigration." (Page 215.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Whoever has had to do with charity work in cities or towns knows how closely it is connected with the question of finding and holding a job. It has seemed to us quite germane that in this discussion on immigrants we should devote one paper to the subject, "How Far Does the Question of the Immigrant Affect the Development of Our Industries," first, in regard to surplus labor, and second, in regard to the development of industry, so that unskilled men may be more constantly utilized. Those of us who have been attending this Conference many years feel that this industrial question is gripping closer and closer on the question of charities. After Mr. Devine's splendid investigation into unemployment, and the question of the standard of living, we cannot keep it out from our councils. We realize how intertwined all our social problems are. We have with us tonight Professor Mead from the University of Chicago, who will present this question not from the point of view of the economist or the trade unionist who feels the pressure of the immigrant, but from the viewpoint of the social philosopher who tries to see the various classes and the various problems of society in relation to each other. It gives me great pleasure to introduce Mr. Mead to this audience.

Prof. George H. Mead delivered an address entitled "The Adjustment of Our Industry to Surplus and Unskilled Labor." (Page 222.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I am sure we are all very grateful to Mr. Mead for his speech, even though he did not take the subject which I gave him. Judge Mack of Chicago was to speak to us also tonight upon the problem of deportation and extradition. But he is unable to be here and his telegram came so late it was impossible to find a substitute. In Chicago recently we have been much stirred over the subject of extradition. Eminent jurists of international reputation have interested themselves in this question especially in the case of a young Russian who was demanded by the Russian government because he was accused of political crime in his own country. The state department decided in this case, and also in a similar case in New York, that the parties in question should not be returned to Russia. This has opened up an entirely new aspect of the immigrant problem. At what point does an oppressive government cease to represent its people, so that the revolutionaries against that government are more adequately representative of the people than the government itself? That question may have to be repeated over and over to our state department, just as long as Russian refugees seek an asylum in our country. It is a matter of deep regret that Judge Mack is not here to speak on this subject. But we have still a half hour left, and we will try the experiment of a general discussion.

After a general discussion in which many members participated, the President of the Conference resumed the chair.

THE PRESIDENT: Mr. Wilcox, chairman of the local committee, wishes to present a matter.

MR. WILCOX: I wish to present a communication which I have had the honor to receive from that grand old man, Mr. Letchworth, once president of your Conference. He suggests that this Conference should be enlarged and made an international conference. It seems to me, coming

from Mr. Letchworth, this communication is invested with a dignity which entitles it to consideration. Mr. Letchworth suggests further that Dr. Peterson, who is now in Japan, be asked to represent this Conference as a delegate, and to make inquiries abroad on subjects of interest to the Conference, and to report next year. I move that these two suggestions be referred to the executive committee with power to act. Seconded, carried.

THE PRESIDENT: The motion is carried, and the matter will go to the executive committee.

The audience sang "America," and the meeting adjourned.

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION

SUNDAY, JUNE 13, 8 P. M.

J. B. Montgomery, superintendent of the Michigan State Public School, Coldwater, Mich., presided.

Dr. Hunter, pastor of the Central Presbyterian Church, opened the meeting with prayer.

Mr. Montgomery then read his report as chairman of the Committee on Children. (Page 30.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The first speaker is Mr. J. J. Kelso of Toronto, Canada, who will tell us about work for dependent children in Ontario.

Mr. Kelso delivered an address entitled "What Ontario Is Doing for Children." (Page 33.)

THE CHAIRMAN: "Child Labor in the South" is the next topic, and it is to be presented by Dr. A. J. McKelway, secretary National Child Labor Committee.

Mr. McKelway delivered an address entitled "Child Labor in the South." (Page 38.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The next address will be by Mr. Hastings H. Hart, chairman of Children's Research, Russell Sage Foundation.

Dr. Hart delivered an address entitled "Unity of Child-Helping Work." (Page 42.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I have asked Mr. Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, to speak to us for five minutes.

Mr. Lovejoy spoke on the subject of the proposed National Children's Bureau. (Page 61.)

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION

MONDAY, JUNE 14, 8 P. M.

The President called the Conference to order and introduced Rt. Rev. Dr. Fallows of Chicago as chairman of the meeting.

Bishop Fallows read the report of the Committee on Law Breakers. (Page 266.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I now have the very great pleasure of introducing to you Dr. Walter Lindley, president of the board of trustees, Whittier State School, Los Angeles, Cal., who will read a paper on European reformatories.

Dr. Lindley read a paper entitled "The Delinquent Child in England." (Page 279.)

MR. BICKNELL: I have asked Bishop Fallows as a personal favor to allow me to introduce the next speaker, Dr. Katharine Bement Davis, superintendent of the New York State Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y. Dr. Davis had been working very hard for many years, so the board of trustees of her institution gave her six months' leave of absence. She landed in Sicily the day after the earthquake, and she was in the little city of Syracuse when shiploads and trainloads of disaster victims were rushed into that city from Messina. She did not know a word of Italian, but she knew a lot of things that were much better than Italian just at that time. She organized some of the most remarkable relief work that Italy has ever seen. I heard of it in all directions. Dr. Davis organized an industrial class, teaching women to sew. She put idle men to work on the streets and in the establishment of a convalescent home. She had thousands of destitute people under her leadership while the Italian municipal authorities were standing around asking her what to do next, and turning over the city buildings to her. All those people are speaking in the highest terms of admiration and wonder of the work Dr. Davis did there. I am not exaggerating. I was there just after she left and heard it from everybody, high and low. I take great pleasure now in introducing Dr. Davis.

Dr. Davis delivered an address entitled "Outdoor Work for Women Prisoners." (Page 289.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Dr. F. Emory Lyon, superintendent of the Central Howard Association of Chicago, will make a short address.

Dr. Lyon delivered an address. (Page 294.)

The President here resumed the chair.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now have the report of the Committee on Organization. Then we will have the pictures that Mr. McKelway has promised, with which the evening's work will end. When the last picture is shown and the lights are turned on, the audience may consider the meeting adjourned. Mr. Kingsley, chairman of the committee, will read the report of the Committee on Organization of the Conference of 1910.

Mr. Kingsley read the report. (Page 587.)

On motion the report was unanimously adopted and the names of the officers it contained were declared to be the officers of the Thirty-Seventh Conference.

Mr. McKelway then showed some pictures of child labor in the South, making a brief explanatory address. (Page 38.)

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION

TUESDAY, JUNE 15, 10:30 A. M.

The President called the Conference to order and introduced Prof. Frank A. Fetter of Cornell.

Dr. Fetter read the report of the Committee on State Supervision and Administration (page 397) and assumed the chair.

Mr. H. C. Bowman, member of the Kansas Board of Control of Topeka, Kan., read a paper entitled "What Are the Proper Fields for State and for Private Charities." (Page 412.)

Mr. David F. Tilley, member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, gave an address on the subject of "Private Charities Without Supervision of a State Board." (Page 424.)

Mr. William C. Graves, secretary of the Illinois Board of Commissioners of Public Charities, read a paper entitled "The Problem of State Supervision in Illinois." (Page 429.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I think all will agree that we have discussed very serious and difficult problems. They concern the expenditure under wise methods of $50,000,000 or more of public money, as well as the supervision and increasing efficiency of as many more millions of private money, expended for charity. They concern likewise these unromantic, uninteresting details which involve the co-operation of public and private charities.

The meeting adjourned.

EIGHTH GENERAL SESSION

TUESDAY, JUNE 15, 8 P. M.

THE PRESIDENT: Before beginning the regular program of the evening, we have one or two matters of business which we will attend to while people are coming in.

MR. ALEXANDER JOHNSON: We have a report from the committee appointed at the Conference in Richmond, which might perhaps be called the Committee on Reorganization. That committee has been unable to agree on a satisfactory report to be presented to this Conference, and requests that it may be granted further time. The motion is that that request be granted.

Seconded; carried.

MR. JOHNSON: I have a recommendation from the executive committee that the President be instructed to appoint a committee of ten, of whom the President of the Conference for 1909 and the General Secretary shall be members, to represent the National Conference of Charities and Correction on the General Committee of the International Prison Congress at its meeting in Washington, D. C., in 1910. I respectfully move that the recommendation of the executive committee be approved, and that it be the action of this Conference.

MR. AMOS W. BUTLER, of Indiana: It may be well to say something concerning the International Prison Congress. Forty years ago the representatives of the government of the United States, at the request of the government of Russia, called the first Conference of the body, which has since become the International Prison Congress. Now nearly thirty nations are officially represented in that Congress, to which official representatives of that many governments called commissioners, are regularly accredited, and these commissioners, once every five years, arrange for an International Prison Congress. At the instigation of the American Prison Association about eight months ago, Congress directed the President of the United States to invite the International Prison Congress to hold its meeting in the Capitol of this Republic in 1910. That invitation was accepted. One of the American Commissioners was Dr. Barrows. We are all deeply grieved to learn of the passing away of this dear man who has done so much in this great work. His successor has been named, a former President of this Conference, one whom we all delight to honor as a United States Commissioner, Dr. C. R. Henderson. Information has been received from the Secretary of the Commission in Paris that at the meeting to be held in Berne, Switzerland, July 2, Dr. Henderson will probably be

chosen to preside over the International Prison Congress in Washington in 1910. This Congress met four years ago at Buda Pesth and met before that in Brussels and in Paris, all of which meetings are memorable. Inasmuch as this is the first time that this Congress will assemble on the west shore of the Atlantic, the expectation is that it, too, will be a particularly memorable meeting. It is fitting that this National Conference of Charities and Correction should be represented upon the Committee of Organization. In fact the entire membership of this Conference should make it a point to be present at this great International Congress. It is an official gathering, and it is also a delegated gathering. It treats practically all the problems that are represented in this Conference. It has four great sections, dealing with criminal law and its administration, with the apprehension and trial and treatment of prisoners, with administration and with preventive work. With these words of explanation, Mr. Chairman, permit me to second the motion.

The motion was duly carried.

THE PRESIDENT: As the motion provides for the appointment of a committee of ten by the present President of the Conference, I would like, with your permission, to wait until later to announce the names of the committee. The regular program of the evening is in charge of the Standing Committee on Press and Publicity. Before introducing the chairman, Mr. H. Wirt Steele, I want to say just a word about the work which this committee or its chairman has done for this Conference in the last two or three years. I think that this Conference fully appreciates the importance and the magnitude of the work which Mr. Steele has done for it. All of you who have read papers at this Conference probably received requests to send your manuscripts to the Secretary or to Mr. Steele before the Conference, and many of you complied. This meant that your paper went to Mr. Steele, who is in close relation with the United Press and the Associated Press. Your papers were abstracted and reduced to the amount of space that the newspaper associations expressed a willingness to take. Mr. Steele did this enormous work, and I don't know how many columns had been sent out to the newspapers of the United States in advance. Some of them went weeks ago, others just a few days ago. Then the newspapers received word by telegraph on the day that publication could be made. They had these ex-extracts beforehand all set up in type and ready to use the moment they should be notified by telegraph that the paper had been read in the Conference. It means that in this way they use an enormously greater amount of the papers that have been read at this Conference, than they could use if they had to get it by telegraph from Buffalo on the day that these papers are read, or even a few days before. The good that this Press Committee has accomplished is greater than any of us can estimate. Mr. Steele didn't know I was going to mention these things. He is too modest to speak of his own work. But those of us who have been in the business know and appreciate very much the value of his good work. We will now put the meeting in charge of Mr. Steele, who has prepared this program.

MR. STEELE: The question of charitable publicity was first mentioned in a dogmatic way at the last session of this Conference in Richmond. The message of the publicist had never been heard before that time, as far as I know, on the floor of this Conference. At that time you listened to a newspaper man from Washington who told you the meaning of a news story from his point of view. He also discussed the means of publicity. This year we propose to present to you the publicist's idea on social betterment, the publicist's idea of his own opportunities for efforts toward social betterment. We propose to try to develop a program in this section of the Conference, through a symposium tonight and a round table tomorrow, and to define as near as we can what is right publicity from the

standpoint of the social worker in various lines. We shall try to show you as near as we can the evolution, the development and the growth that have gone on in this work in compiling and presenting the annual reports of charitable societies and institutions.

Mr. H. Wirt Steele as chairman of the Committee on Press and Publicity presented his report for publication, but did not read it owing to the full program for the evening. The report appears on page 308.

THE CHAIRMAN: Perhaps no one in this country could present to you more clearly the message of the evening than the first speaker, Dr. Albert Shaw, editor of the Review of Reviews. He is here to talk about his experience in his own profession. Dr. Shaw's address was not abstracted in advance. His message to the newspaper fraternity of America will be carried in full by the Associated Press tonight. I take great pleasure in introducing Dr. Shaw of New York City.

Dr. Shaw delivered an address entitled "The Opportunity of the Publicist in Relation to Efforts for Social Betterment." (Page 313.)

THE CHAIRMAN: In behalf of the membership of this Conference I want to thank Dr. Shaw for his message. I daresay five years ago we would not have been able to find in the United States an editor with such a message. The next six speakers will scarcely need an introduction. Each one is known in his own special field as doing some things mighty well. Each of these men has been selected by the committee with a view to pointing out to the people of their respective fields of activity what in their judgment successful publicity means. This they are going to try to tell you in this series of talks of ten minutes each. Mr. Birtwell, general secretary of the Children's Aid Society of Boston, will tell us what he conceives to be right publicity in relation to child caring work.

Mr. Birtwell delivered an address entitled "Right Publicity in Child Caring Work." (Not printed.)

THE CHAIRMAN: One of the things which every executive of a private philanthropy wants to know is how to finance his enterprise, how to raise the sinews of war. Mr. Orlando F. Lewis, of the financial department of the C. O. S., New York City, will speak to you about publicity in relation to charitable finance.

Mr. Lewis delivered an address entitled "Right Publicity in Charitable Finance." (Page 345.)

Mr. Frederick D. Greene, assistant general agent New York A. I. C. P., New York, gave an address on "Right Publicity in Relief Work," with stereopticon illustrations. (Page 350.)

Brief addresses were delivered as follows: By Mr. John A. Kingsbury, Asst. Sec. N. Y. St. Char. and Assn., on Publicity in Public Health Work, (Page 333); by Mr. Francis H. McLean, Field Sec. of C. O. S. Extension Com., on Publicity in C. O. S. Work (page 339); and by Mr. Wm. C. Graves, Sec. Ill. St. Bd. of Char., on Publicity in Institutional Work, (Page 341.)

MR. JOHN M. GLENN of New York: The executive committee recommends changes in the Rules of Order as follows:

1. To change the rule providing for the membership of the executive committee by adding the Treasurer as an ex officio member.

2. To change the rule providing for a Committee on Organization by making the number of its members nine instead of seven.

I move the adoption of these two resolutions.

Seconded and carried.

NINTH GENERAL SESSION

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 16, 8 P. M.

The President declared the Conference in session and called on Mr. John M. Glenn, chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, to submit his report.

MR. GLENN: I have two resolutions with reference to comrades whom we have lost during the last twelve months:

RIGHT REVEREND GEORGE D. GILLESPIE

"Bishop Gillespie died in March, 1909. He had nearly reached the end of his ninetieth year. From the time of his entrance into the ministry of the Protestant Episcopal Church, when twenty-one years of age, his life was given to wise and vigorous effort for the benefit of men and the raising of social standards. After twenty years of parochial work in New York and Ohio he went to Ann Arbor, Michigan. In 1874, the year in which this Conference was founded, he was made Bishop of Western Michigan. In 1875 he was appointed a member of the State Board of Charities and Correction of Michigan, and served on the board until the time of his death, a period of thirty-four years. During his term of service the number of the state institutions which were under the supervision of the board increased from five to seventeen, and their population from 1,250 to over 10,000. He acquainted himself thoroughly with these institutions and contributed much to their establishment on right lines and their proper management. He kept in close and sympathetic touch with their progress and with their inmates. He was elected president of our Conference in 1888 at Buffalo, and directed one of its most important meetings, held in San Francisco in 1889.

"He was vigorous in mind and body, energetic in work, clear in thought, and gave constantly practical evidence of his sympathy with all sorts and conditions of men.

"We mourn the loss of an honored colleague and tender our sympathy to his family."

Mr. President, I move the adoption of this resolution.

Seconded, and unanimously adopted.

SAMUEL J. BARROWS

"Samuel June Barrows was one of the most valuable members of this Conference. Musician, poet, clergyman, soldier, editor, congressman, Secretary of the New York Prison Association, U. S. Prison Commissioner, president elect of the International Prison Congress of 1910, in every phase of his life he was incessantly working to help the unfortunate and to stimulate the community to healthy growth. He was essentially an idealist and withal sound in thought and effective in action.

"During the latter years of his life his powers were given chiefly to the betterment of prisoners and to developing sane methods of treating and educating them. He did much toward procuring wiser legislation and arousing the public to a sense of their responsibilities toward the law breaker, and of the lack of prudence and foresight in our usual methods of dealing with them. Yet in his private life could best be seen his gentle sympathy and patient courage in trial.

"He was a frequent attendant at our Conferences, and served several times as chairman of committees.

"On his deathbed his strongest wish was to be allowed to continue to serve his fellows.

"We mourn the loss of a colleague and friend taken from us while still in full possession of vigorous life and power. We tender our sympathy to his widow, also our friend and colleague of many years, and to his family."

Mr. President, I move the adoption of this resolution.

Seconded, and unanimously adopted.

On motion, the Secretary was instructed to cable to Mrs. Barrows, who is in Europe, an expression of sympathy from the Conference.

MR. GLENN: The Committee on Resolutions offers also the following resolutions of thanks:

RESOLUTIONS OF THANKS

"Having met a second time in Buffalo after an interval of twenty-five years, we again bid farewell to our friends here with great regret and with a hope that we may have the chance to accept another invitation to enjoy the loveliness of this city and the genial sympathy of its citizens.

The local arrangements have been excellent; the members of the local committee have been untiring in their labors and quickly responsive to all requests. Our officers report that every suggestion made by them has been promptly complied with. The social and personal attentions offered us have been charming. We tender special acknowledgments to your honored mayor for the encouragement of his presence and kind welcome; to the chairman of the local committee, Mr. Wilcox, and its secretary, Mr. Hillman, whose service has been constant and invaluable; to Miss Laverack and her companions who made everyone want to spend all the time at the information bureau; to Miss Wilcox, who so happily arranged and directed the exhibits; to Mr. Whitford and his assistants of the Y. M. C. A., who have made our visits to their building so pleasant; to the ladies who have supplied us daily with fresh and lovely flowers everywhere.

We value greatly the sympathy of the clergy who on Sunday offered their pulpits to members of the Conference or preached sermons explaining its aims.

We have been well provided with comfortable places for meetings through the courtesy of the Central Presbyterian Church, the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A. and the Genessee Hotel.

We shall remember with great pleasure the gracious hospitality of Mrs. Rumsey in her beautiful grounds, and of the pleasant receptions and other courtesies offered us by various clubs and societies.

We are indebted to the local charities for invitations to visit them and learn what they are doing.

The local newspapers and the press associations have done their share in bringing us in touch with the general public. For all these and many other kindnesses, too numerous to mention, we offer our cordial appreciation and express the hope that our meeting with you may be mutually stimulating to deeper service and clearer wisdom in dealing with community problems."

I move the adoption of these resolutions of thanks.

Seconded and unanimously carried.

The General Secretary presented the following:

REPORT OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

During the year 1908-9 the Executive Committee held five meetings.

The first meeting was held in Richmond, Va., November 16, during the session of the National Prison Congress. At this meeting the local committee of Buffalo, as appointed by Mayor Adam, was accepted by the committee. The committee also approved certain exhibits to be made in connection with the Buffalo Conference, provided the exhibitors defray all the expenses connected therewith. It was resolved to donate certain Conference volumes of which there is a large supply on hand, to colleges and public libraries. The Secretary reported attending state conferences in many states, and other public meetings. The report of the work of the Press and

Publicity Committee was approved, and the sum of five hundred dollars appropriated for its work. The program of the Thirty-Sixth Conference was especially discussed.

The second meeting was held in Buffalo, April 30, 1909. The program of the Thirty-Sixth Conference was passed upon, by committees, and approved. Details of arrangement with railroads for the Thirty-Sixth Conference were left with the local committee.

The third meeting was held in Buffalo, June 9, 1909. It was agreed, in answer to a request, to appoint representatives to a preliminary meeting to arrange for a conference on congestion, to be held next year. Certain invitations to send delegates to sundry national gatherings were respectfully declined. The financial report of the Secretary and Treasurer, as audited by the Audit Company of Illinois, was presented and approved, and a vote of thanks tendered to the Treasurer and Secretary for their services during the year. The allowance to the Secretary for clerical help was increased from ninety dollars to a hundred and twenty-five a month.

At the fourth meeting, held in Buffalo, June 11, 1909, sundry changes of rules of order were recommended to the Conference. A committee of ten to represent the Conference in the arrangement for the International Prison Congress was also recommended to the Conference.

At the fifth meeting in Buffalo, June 15, 1909, the committee decided that under the present conditions it is not desirable to illustrate the annual volume with pictures, but appropriate diagrams, if presented by the authors of papers, may be printed. It was decided to request Dr. Frederick Peterson, who is traveling in the East, to report to the Conference on the hospitals and asylums of Japan and China, also to grant a traveling letter to Dr. T. D. Osborne, Vice-President of the Conference, who is about to tour around the world; also to empower the President to add to the various committees two foreign corresponding members, this being the initial step in making our Conference international instead of national; also to authorize the President and Secretary to announce in official publications the programs of certain approved societies which will meet in connection with the Conference, the following having been approved so far:

The Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward, Delinquent and Dependent Children.

The Remedial Loan Association.

The Probation Officers' Association.

The Visiting Nurses' Association.

MR. JOHNSON: I have also the pleasure of reporting the attendance of this Conference. We have enrolled 1,139 persons in attendance, of whom 913 are members and 226 visitors who have not thought it convenient to become members. We have representatives in this Conference from thirty-eight states, provinces and kingdoms. The number of members from the different states and countries is as follows:

Alabama, 2; Arkansas, 2; California, 5; Colorado, 4; Connecticut, 13; Delaware, 3; District of Columbia, 18; Georgia, 10; Illinois, 60; Indiana, 30; Iowa, 9; Kansas, 7; Kentucky, 8; Maine, 10; Maryland, 16; Massachusetts, 102; Michigan, 16; Minnesota, 9; Missouri, 25; Nebraska, 7; New Hampshire, 4; New Jersey, 29; New Mexico, 1; New York, 285; North Carolina, 3; Ohio, 89; Oklahoma, 9; Pennsylvania, 73; Rhode Island, 14; South Carolina, 1; Tennessee, 1; Texas, 4; Utah, 1; Virginia, 9; Washington, 1; West Virginia, 3; Wisconsin, 14; Canada, 14; Germany, 2.

THE PRESIDENT: By consent, the report of the Executive Committee will be accepted and placed on file. It will be remembered that the President was instructed to appoint a committee of ten to represent this Con-

ference in the International Prison Conference, which is to be held in Washington next January. The committee of ten to represent this Conference at that Congress will be as follows:

COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS

Miss Jane Addams, Homer Folks, F. H. Nibecker, Dr. Katharine B. Davis, Thomas M. Mulry, Hon. William Calhoun, Judge Julian W. Mack, Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Alexander Johnson, Ernest P. Bicknell.

I appointed Mr. Johnson and myself because the resolution which created the committee provided that that be done. We are now ready for the regular program of the evening. It will be in charge of Dr. John S. Fulton of Philadelphia, chairman of the Committee on Health and Sanitation. I take great pleasure in introducing Dr. Fulton.

Dr. Fulton here assumed the chair.

Mr. Roy Smith Wallace of Buffalo read a paper entitled "The Responsibilities and Opportunities of a Health Officer." (Page 182.)

Dr. Luther Halsey Gulick, president of the Playground Association of America, read a paper entitled "Private Philanthropy and Municipal Administration." (Page 193.)

Dr. G. W. Goler, superintendent Department of Public Health, Rochester, N. Y., gave an address entitled "Milk for Babes," which he illustrated with the stereopticon. (Page 200.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Glenn has an announcement to make.

MR. GLENN: I have a memorandum from the secretary of the Children's Congress called by President Roosevelt last January in Washington. The proceedings of the conference are published by Congress. About five thousand copies have been distributed. The demand for them is still great, and there is no supply with which to meet it. Senator Owen of Oklahoma has introduced a resolution for the printing and distribution of five thousand additional copies. The secretary of the Conference at Washington asks that every one here write to their senators and congressmen, and ask that they support this resolution for the reprint of Senate Document No. 721, the proceedings of the Washington Conference for the Care of Children. If a sufficient number of people are heard from by senators and representatives that resolution can easily be passed. It is a matter of very great importance and value to the whole country. I heartily endorse the suggestion of the secretary of the Children's Conference, and all of us who are interested in that Conference will be very glad if all of you will take the matter into consideration, and do what you can to get this resolution passed.

THE PRESIDENT: I am going to take half a minute or a quarter of a minute in a purely personal way. This Conference—which I have called my Conference because it is the only one of which I have been President—has seemed to me to be altogether a good Conference. Possibly I have looked upon it with a somewhat prejudiced eye. Everybody has been so helpful and kind and courteous to me and to those of us who have come here that I want to express in the warmest way I can my personal thanks to the people of Buffalo. I want to go further than that and thank the officers of this Conference who have been beside me and in front of me, and who have done the hard work. As a matter of fact the chairmen of committees and the Secretary do the actual work. The President stands around on the platform and looks wise, and gets more credit than he is entitled to. The fact is, and you know it, that the people who are actually to be credited with the success of this Conference are these faithful people who have written the papers and arranged the program for the sections and the Secretary, who has worked night and day for weeks, doing things which I am sure the President ought to have done. I was abroad two months,

and while I was gone the Secretary did everything that I ought to have done had I been here, and did it better than I would have done it. Now I want to give over this Conference of mine to my successor. It gives me a greater pleasure than anything that has come to me since this Conference began. I am going to ask you now to greet Miss Jane Addams who follows me as President of this Conference. (Enthusiastic and prolonged applause.)

Miss Addams came to the platform.

MISS ADDAMS: It is so late, I am sure you will not expect a speech. I know the Conference is feeling somewhat of the reaction that always follows a day or two after a rather venturesome and unusual action. You are feeling, perhaps, that having given the executive office to a woman, it will have to be proved whether it was a wise action or not. I can only say for your comfort that you have not been hasty, you have waited thirty-five years and the woman whom you have elected will promise to walk as softly as possible, think twice before she speaks, and then speak only after counting ten, that nothing untoward may happen. And she will remember that this Conference of Charities and Correction must face problems involving men, women and children. I hope by all pulling together, and by the courtesy of these gentlemen who have all been so kind to me since the election, we will have another Conference as successful as this. And I bid you farewell until next year, hoping we may all meet in St. Louis.

THE PRESIDENT: The Thirty-Sixth Conference of Charities and Correction is adjourned.

Minutes of Section Meetings

Year by year these meetings are growing in value and importance. Each year the time spent in discussion is more and more at the section meetings and less, actually and proportionately, at the general sessions. While it is still impracticable to report the discussions, the editor believes that it is worth while to make some mention of the subjects discussed, and to include those taking part in them in the Index of Writers and Speakers, and this is done in this volume for the first time.

For some years it has been usual to print a few of the papers read at section meetings. This year an attempt has been made to print them all; a few of them in full, but most of them in brief abstract. A few papers only have escaped and this is due to the refusal or neglect of the authors to send in the copy.

For convenience the minutes are grouped under the headings of the titles of the committees, instead of in order of days. The minutes here printed are based on reports handed in to the official reporter by one member of each committee who acted as Secretary of the section.

CHILDREN

This committee held five section meetings and considered subjects as follows:

Thursday, June 10—"The Breaking Up of Families," paper by C. C. Carstens. (Page 48.)

Discussion by Homer Folks, N. Y.; Mrs. S. K. Waterman, Ohio; Miss Mary E. Richmond, Pa.; C. E. Faulkner, Minn.; Miss Mary C. Thompson, Ohio; W. H. Pear, Mass.; Charles T. Walker, Pa.; T. H. Lacey, Va.; Charles Virden, Ill.; E. D. Solenberger, Pa.; Victor F. Ritter, N. Y.; Patrick Mallen, N. Y.; George A. Lewis, N. Y.; Mrs. J. N. Cushing, Cal.; Robert E. Tracey, Mass.; H. G. Ogden, N. Y.; J. B. Quinn, Mo.

Friday, June 11—"Juvenile Courts as an Aid to Good Citizenship," paper by Wm. H. DeLacy. (Page 46.)

Discussion by Charles E. Faulkner, Minn.; Hon. J. M. Moses, Md.; S. W. Haynes, Ind.; Joseph Rauch, Iowa; H. H. Baker, Mass.; Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, Washington, D. C.; H. Derlinger, N. J.; Mrs. H. H. Heller, Neb.; Wm. Duncan, Canada; C. C. Stahmann, Mo.; J. B. Quinn, Mo.; Roger M. Baldwin, Mont.; Mrs. T. R. Ayars, Mont.; Geo. L. Jones, Md., and one other speaker, name not secured.

Saturday, June 12—"Rural Education Among Southern Highlanders," paper by Miss Martha Berry (not given to editor), and "The Problem of Truancy," Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly. (Page 53.)

Discussion by Geo. L. Sehon, Ky.; W. Almont Gates, Cal.; Mrs. E. J. Shankle, N. C.; Mrs. S. K. Waterman, Ohio; Mrs. Helen Campbell, N. Y.

Monday, June 14—"The Relative Functions of the State and Private Charity in the Care of Dependent Children."

"The Function of the State," paper by Stanley C. Griffin, State Agent of Michigan (page 55), and address, "The Function of Private Charities," by Charles W. Birtwell of Boston (copy not furnished).

Discussion by James E. West, D. C.; C. E. Faulkner, Minn.; M. V. Crouse, Ohio; Mrs. S. K. Waterman, Ohio; Mrs. J. M. Cushing, Cal.; W. D. Reynolds, Ind.; Mrs. Jane King, Mich.; Mrs. Clara D. Pierson, Mich.; Homer Folks, N. Y.; Saul Drucker, Ill.; H. H. Hart, N. Y., and others unnamed.

Tuesday, June 15—"After Care of Institution Children," paper by Rev. Bro. Barnabas of New York (Page 58), and "The Value of a Good Record System for Child-Helping Agencies," paper by Edwin D. Solenberger, (copy not furnished).

Discussion by W. S. Reynolds, Ind.; Mrs. W. B. Campbell, Ind.; C. E. Faulkner, Minn.; Stanley C. Griffin, Mich.; Mrs. Clara D. Pierson, Mich.; Mrs. D. Z. Covill, N. Y.; M. V. Crouse, Ohio; Parker B. Field, Mass.; Patrick Mallen, N. Y.; Geo. Cooke, D. C., and others.

DEFECTIVES

This committee had three section meetings.

Friday, June 11—"Preventable Blindness," address by George Allen Hubbell, Ph. D. (Page 91.)

Discussion by Miss Lucy Wright, Mass.; Graham Taylor, Ill.; Miss Catherine Brannick, Mass., and others.

Saturday, June 12—"What is Being Done in the Psychological Study of the Feeble-Minded" (with demonstrations), address by Henry H. Goddard, Ph. D., of Vineland, N. J. (Page 98.)

No discussion, audience being too impatient to examine the exhibits and laboratory.

The interest in this address and exhibit was so great that Dr. Goddard was requested to repeat his address and demonstrations, which he did on Tuesday afternoon, June 15, making a third section meeting for this committee.

FAMILIES AND NEIGHBORHOODS

This committee had five section meetings as follows:

Thursday, June 10—"The Integrity of the Family," address by Joseph Lee of Boston. (Page 122.)

Discussion by C. S. Bernheimer, N. Y.; Miss Mary E. Richmond, Pa.; Miss Kate Barnard, Okla.; Mrs. Florence Kelley, N. Y.; Mrs. Helen Campbell, Maine; J. W. Magruder, Md.

Friday, June 11—"Community Life in the Open Country," paper by Liberty H. Bailey of Cornell. (Page 123.)

"Social Betterment in the Southern Mountains," paper by John C. Campbell. (Page 130.)

Discussion by Mrs. Mary J. Vanhook, Pa.; Rev. Fred. Lee Webb, Tenn.; A. C. Hill, N. Y.; Mr. Ackerman, Tenn.; Mrs. A. O. Granger, Ga.; Mrs. Helen M. Campbell, Maine; Mrs. D. W. Read, Va.; Chas. Birtwell, Mass.; Mrs. John M. Glenn, N. Y.

Saturday, June 12—"The Neighborhood and the Municipality," address by Graham Taylor of Chicago. (Page 156.)

"The Settlement and Civic Reform," address by John R. Howard, Jr., of Buffalo. (No copy furnished.)

Discussion by Mrs. Melville P. Porter, Buffalo; Mrs. S. K. Waterman, Ohio; Richard Boynton, Buffalo; Miss Maria M. Love, Buffalo.

Monday, June 14—"The Neighborhood and the Municipality," address by Paul U. Kellogg. (Page 163.)

"The Application of C. O. S. Case Method to Families Above the Poverty Line," paper by Mrs. Mary K. Simkhovitch. (Page 137.)

"Conditions in the Packing House Industry," paper by Miss Mary E. McDowell. (Page 150.)

No discussion.

Friday, June 15—"Public Recreation," address by Dr. L. H. Gulick. (Page 178.)

"Public Recreation," paper by Edward J. Ward, Rochester. (Page 180.)

"The Chicago Play Centers," address by Graham Romeyn Taylor. (No copy furnished.)

Discussion by Mrs. B. B. Mumford, Va.; Mrs. A. O. Granger, Ga.; Dr. L. H. Gulick, N. Y.; Mrs. M. J. Vanhook, Pa.; E. J. Wood, N. Y.; Mrs. Helen M. Campbell, Maine; Miss Sadie American, N. Y.

HEALTH AND SANITATION

This committee conducted two section meetings.

Tuesday, June 15—"The Great Wrong of Sending Advanced Consumptives Away from Home," paper by Rev. W. S. Friedman of Denver, Colo. (Page 205.)

"Safeguarding the Sale of Narcotics," paper by Wm. Jay Schieffelin, N. Y. (Page 208.)

Discussion by Dr. Boris D. Bogen, Ohio; James Jenkins, N. Y.; Miss Sadie Haley, Texas; Dr. Max. R. Smirnow, Md.; John R. Schillady, Buffalo.

Wednesday, June 16—"Nutrition Problems in Public Institutions," paper by C. F. Langworthy. (Page 203.)

"The Diet of Tuberculosis Patients," address by Dr. Herbert Maxon King. (Page 201.)

"The Food Supplies of Charitable and Semi-Charitable Institutions," paper by Dr. Harvey W. Wiley. (Not printed.)

IMMIGRANTS

This committee held four section meetings, as follows:

Thursday, June 10—Topic, "The Immigrant Finding Work."

"Relieving the Congestion in Seaboard Towns," paper by David A. Bressler of New York. (Page 227.)

"The Distribution of Immigrant Labor Through Employment Agencies," paper by Miss Grace Abbott. (Not printed, by author's request.)

"Oriental Immigration on the Pacific Coast," paper by W. A. Gates of California. (Page 203.)

Discussion by Cyrus L. Sulzberger, N. Y.; Miss S. P. Breckenridge, Ill.; Dr. Walter Lindley, Cal.

Saturday, June 12—Topic, "The Adjustment of the School Systems to the Needs of the Immigrant."

"Public Schools," paper by Dr. David Blaustein. (No copy furnished.)

"Night Schools," paper by Dr. Peter Roberts. (Page 232.)

"Camp Schools," paper by Miss Sarah W. Moore. (Page 236.)

Discussion by A. C. Hill, N. Y.; Miss Mary E. McDowell, Ill.; Rabbi Frederich Cohn, Neb.; Levi A. Halbert, Mo.; Philip Davis, Mass.

Monday, June 14—Topic, "The Adjustment of the Legal Machinery to the Needs of the Immigrant."

"The Relation of the Alien to the Administration of Civil and Criminal Law," paper by Gino C. Speranza. (Page 238.)

"Experience With Immigrants in a Police Court," paper by Judge Emmanuel Levine, Ohio. (Page 242.)

"The Health of the Immigrant—a Study of Typhoid in Pittsburg," paper by Douglas C. McMurtrie. (Page 247.)

Discussion by Miss Sarah W. Moore, N. Y.; Dr. David Blaustein, Ill.; Miss Sadie American, N. Y.; Mrs. L. J. Howe, N. Y.; A. C. Hill, N. Y.; P. N. Helfer, N. Y.; Judge Emmanuel Levine, Ohio.

Wednesday, June 16—Topic, "The Child of the Immigrant."

"The Delinquent Children of Immigrant Parents," paper by Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen. (Page 255.)

"The Immigrant Young Girl," paper by Miss Lillian D. Wald. (Page 261.)

"Child Life on the Streets," paper by Philip Davis, Boston. (Page 250.)

Discussion by Miss Grace Abbott, Ill.; J. B. Quinn, Mo.; Mrs. Helen Campbell, Maine; C. W. Birtwell, Mass.; Mrs. Edward C. Rungey, Mo.; Mr. Welch, N. Y.; Mrs. S. C. Fernandis, R. I.; Mrs. J. T. Bowen, Ill.; Miss Minor, N. Y.; Rabbi Cohn, Neb.; Charles Virden, Ill.; Mr. Halbert, Kan.; Miss M. E. McDowell, Ill.

LAW BREAKERS

This committee held one section meeting on Monday, June 14, and discussed "The Prosecution of Parents for the Delinquencies of Children," a paper by Frank E. Wade. (Page 297.)

Discussion by Charles Virden, Ill.; Thomas J. Homer, Mass.; Mrs. Florence Kelley, N. Y.; Mrs. Helen Campbell, Maine; Mrs. George F. French, Maine; C. C. Carstens, Mass.; Miss Zilpha Smith, Mass.; Amos W. Butler, Ind.; Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, D. C.; Mrs. Max Stanislaw, N. Y.

PRESS AND PUBLICITY

This committee conducted one section meeting on Wednesday, June 16. The subjects presented were as follows:

"Social Photography," an address, illustrated with stereopticon pictures by Mr. Lewis W. Hine. (Page 355.)

A round table on "The Evolution of the Annual Report." Speakers: J. W. Magruder, Baltimore; Charles F. Weller, Pittsburg; Sherman C. Kingsley, Chicago; Edwin D. Solenberger, Philadelphia.

STATISTICS

This committee conducted one section meeting on Saturday, June 12. The subject discussed was "Statistics of Public Outdoor Relief," a paper by Dr. Thomas J. Riley, (Page 387.)

Discussion by John Koren, Mass.; J. Bruce Byall, Ohio; Mrs. Helen Campbell, Maine; Amos W. Butler, Ind.; Chas. P. Kellogg, Conn.; Wm. J. Ahern, N. H.; H. H. Shirer, Ohio.

STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION

This committee had a section meeting on Monday, June 14. The subjects presented were:

"A Federal Bureau and the State Boards as Centers of Philanthropic Information and Publicity," a paper by Howard S. Braucher. (Page 438.)

"Publicity and Information as Functions of Charitable Boards."

Ten-minute addresses by H. W. Charles (page 450) and Mrs. Emily E. Williamson. *

Discussion by Mrs. Minnie N. Rutherford, Ark.; Amos W. Butler, Ind.; Harry C. Bowman, Kan.; Sherman G. Elliott, Kan.; E. Hartman, Mass.; A. W. Gates, Cal.; Geo. B. Wight, N. J.; Mrs. Buck, Ill.; G. S. Robinson, Iowa.

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*The sudden and lamented death of this talented, energetic and most public-spirited woman came as a shock to her many friends, co-workers and admirers, a few days after the Conference, and is the reason for the absence of her outline of the address above mentioned.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, SECRETARY'S FINANCIAL STATEMENT, CONFERENCE YEAR 1908 TO 1909.

Balance on hand May 1, 1908		$1,220 42
RECEIPTS FROM MAY 1, 1908, TO JUNE 2, 1909.		
Memberships:		
Active, year 1906	$ 5 00	
Active, year 1907	52 50	
Active, year 1908	1,605 50	
Active, year 1909	2,504 50	
Active, year 1910	40 00	
Total Active	$4,207 50	
Sustaining, year 1908	$ 230 00	
Sustaining, year 1909	1,910 00	
Sustaining, year 1910	15 00	
Total Sustaining	$2,155 00	
Total Memberships	$6,362 50	
Contributions	1,570 00	
Sales of Proceedings	1,182 51	
Sales of Bulletin	2 30	
Sales of Guide	421 46	
Sales of Index	169 04	
Sales of Badges	145 50	
Sales of Reprints	45 96	
Exchange and Collection	20 15	
Refund of Postage	50	
Refund of Express, etc	22 28	
Refund of Insurance	5 45	
Secretary's Contingent Fund Returned	200 00	
Interest on Bank Deposits	19 25	
Total Receipts		$10,166 90
		$11,387 32

DISBURSEMENTS FROM MAY 1, 1908, TO JUNE 2, 1909.

Publishing Proceedings:		
Printing and Binding	$1,524 61	
Reporting	150 00	
Plates	67 50	
Distributing	385 56	
Total Publishing Proceedings of 1908	$2,127 67	
Proceedings—Stock:		
Binding Volumes	$ 31 88	
Purchase of Volumes	3 50	
Freight and Hauling of Stock	55 52	
Distributing	58 56	
Total Expense of Stock, etc	149 46	
Publishing Reprints	57 15	
Publishing Guide and Index:		
Printing and Binding Guide	$ 546 05	
Printing and Binding Index	110 70	
Advertising Circulars for do	27 50	
Distributing	54 84	
	739 09	
Publishing Bulletin:		
Printing, etc	$ 357 85	
Postage on same	131 63	
	489 48	
Salaries of Secretary and Clerks	3,575 97	
Secretary's Contingent Fund	200 00	
Secretary's Traveling Expenses	297 70	
President's Traveling Expenses, etc	47 20	
Press Committee Expenses	391 49	

Sundry Expense:			
Postage	$ 360 42		
Printing and Stationery	349 28		
Freight and Express	103 79		
Office Rent	195 00		
Office Furniture	35 50		
Insurance	22 23		
Telegraph and Telephone	40 97		
		1,107 19	
Sundry Expense, Conference of 1908:			
Exhibits, etc.		291 00	
Exchange on Collections		14 35	
Check returned account death of member		2 60	
Total Disbursements			$9,490 88
Treasurer's balance on hand June 2, 1909			$1,896 94

REPORT OF THE OFFICIAL AUDITORS.

June 3, 1909.

The Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Buffalo, New York.

Gentlemen:

We have audited the Secretary's Financial Report for the Conference year 1908-1909, from May 1, 1908, to June 2, 1909.

We found that all monies received by the Secretary, as shown by the daily record of receipts, and amounting to $9,947.65, have been duly turned over to the Treasurer of the Conference.

In checking the Cash Book, we found that Membership Fees for 1908, page 92, is footed $47.50 instead of $45.00, and consequently shows an overpayment by your Secretary of $2.50.

The disbursements for the period under review, amounting to $9,490.85, have been made on properly authorized vouchers which we checked with the itemized vouchers in the hands of the Secretary and found to be correctly stated.

The balance of cash on hand, $1,896.94, we found to be duly deposited to the credit of the Conference Account with the Continental National Bank of Chicago.

A copy of the Secretary's report is appended hereto.

Yours very truly,

THE AUDIT COMPANY OF ILLINOIS,

By C. W. KNISELY.

The Organization of the Conference of 1909

President, Ernest P. Bicknell, Washington, D. C.; First Vice-President, Dr. Thomas D. Osborne, Louisville; Second Vice-President, David F. Tilley, Boston; Third Vice-President, Robert W. Hebberd, New York; General Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.; Assistant Secretaries, W. H. McClain, St. Louis; Harold K. Estabrook, Philadelphia; E. R. Johnstone, Vineland, N. J.; O. E. Darnall, Washington, D. C.; W. C. Graves, Springfield, Ill.; H. H. Shirer, Columbus, O.; Treasurer, Edward Boyle, Chicago.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE—The ex-presidents as follows: Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Ohio (*1879**); F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts (*1880*); Fred H. Wines, Illinois; (*1881*); William P. Letchworth, New York (*1884*); Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie, Michigan (*1889*); Hastings H. Hart, Illinois (*1893*); Robert Treat Paine, Massachusetts (*1895*); Alexander Johnson, Indiana (*1897*); William R. Stewart, New York (*1898*); Charles R. Henderson, Illinois (*1899*); Charles E. Faulkner, Minnesota (*1900*); John M. Glenn, Maryland (*1901*); Timothy Nicholson, Indiana (*1902*); Robert W. de Forest, New York (*1903*); Jeffrey R. Brackett, Massachusetts (*1904*); Rev. Samuel G. Smith, D. D., Minnesota (*1905*); Edward T. Devine, New York (*1906*); Amos W. Butler, Indiana (*1907*); Thomas M. Mulry, New York (*1908*); the President; the First Vice-President; George B. Davis, Virginia; James F. Jackson, Ohio; J. J. Kelso, Ontario; Homer Folks, New York; Julian W. Mack, Illinois; Frank L. McVey, Minnesota; George B. Robinson, New York; F. H. Nibecker, Pennsylvania; George S. Wilson, District of Columbia.

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*The date following the name of each ex-president is that of his year of office.

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HEALTH AND SANITATION—Dr. John S. Fulton, Chairman, 2211 St. Paul street, Baltimore; H. E. Barnard, State Food and Drug Commissioner, Indianapolis; Dr. H. M. Bracken, Minneapolis; F. J. Bruno, Colorado Springs, Colo.; Dr. Richard C. Cabot, 190 Marlboro street, Boston; Dr. Charles V. Chapin, City Hall, Providence, R. I.; Mrs. Dane Coolidge, 3001 Dwight Way, Berkeley, Cal.; Dr. J. F. Edwards, 517 St. Clair street, Pittsburg; Miss Alice S. Griffith, 2608 Webster street, San Francisco; Dr. Charles Hatfield, 2008 Walnut street, Philadelphia; Dr. Charles A. Hoggetts, Chief Health Officer, Toronto, Ontario; John R. Howard, Jr., 404 Seneca street, Buffalo; Miss Matilda L. Johnson, 501 St. Clair avenue, Cleveland; Miss Nannie J. Miner, 108 North Seventh street, Richmond, Va.; Dr. Prince Morrow, 66 West Fortieth street, New York; Miss Adelaide Nutting, 417 West 118th street, New York; Dr. C. O. Probst, Columbus, O.; Thomas G. Rapier, Picayune Office, New Orleans; William Jay Schieffelein, 5 E. 66th street, New York; Mrs. P. J. Toomey, 4035 West Morgan street, St. Louis; H. W. Wiley, Department of Agriculture, Washington; Dr. William C. Woodward, District building, Washington.

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Membership List

Revised to October 1, 1909.

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Searcy, Dr. J. T., Supt. Insane Hospital, Tuscaloosa.
Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Livingston.
Willows, Maurice, 2016½ Second Ave., Birmingham.

ARIZONA.

Fowler, B. A., Pres. A. C., Phoenix.

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Hebrew Relief Assn., Pine Bluff.
Reynolds, Prof. J. H., Fayetteville.
Rutherford, Mrs. Minnie A., Magazine.

CALIFORNIA.

Associated Charities, Court House, Los Angeles.
Associated Charities, 1265 Franklin St., Oakland.
*Banning, B. R., 2434 Hillside Ave., Berkeley.
Brewer, Miss Anne W., 770 Summit Ave., Oakland.
Bridge, Dr. Norman, 217 So. Broadway, Los Angeles.
*Brown, Julius A., 2317 W. 9th St., Los Angeles.
Burdette, Mrs. Clara B., Pasadena.
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Coolidge, Mrs. Dane, 3001 Dwight Way, Berkeley.
Dawson, Dr. Wm. J. G., Medical Supt. Home for F. M., Eldridge.
Desmond, C. C., 301 S. Spring St., Los Angeles.
Gillett, Hon. Jas. N., Sacramento.
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Greeley, J. P., Supt. Whittier State School, Whittier.
Hallidie, Mrs. A. S., 2635 Channing Way, Berkeley.
*Lindley, Dr. Walter, 1414 S. Hope St., Los Angeles.
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Ruess, Christopher, 827 57th St., Oakland.
Sewell, Spencer K., Sec. Assoc. Char., Los Angeles.
Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave., Redlands.
Symmes, Frank J., 2231 Piedmont Way, Berkeley.
Taylor, R. S., Yreka.
Tinning, W. S., Martinez.
Whitney, Miss C. A., Sec. Associated Charities, 808 Broadway, Oakland.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities, The
Cushing, Mrs. J. M., 1926 Octavia St.
Cushing, O. K., 37 Seventh Ave.
Davis, Horace, 133 Spear St.
Fitch, Miss Virginia, Fairmont Hotel.
Gates, W. A., Sec. Board of State Charities, the Merchants Exchange.
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Levy, Meyer H., 1768 O'Farrell St.
Miles, Charles, Territ. Sec. Salvation Army, 1271 Mission St.
Putnam, Osgood, 401 California St.
Ramm, Rev. Chas. A., 1100 Franklin St.
Rosenthal, Louis, 301 California St.
Todd, Arthur J., 1635 Mason St.
Turner, George C., Baker and Grove Sts.
Wheelen, F. H., 930 Merchants Exchange.

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Library of Univ. of Colo., Boulder.
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Paddleford, Fred L., Supt. State Indus. Sch. for Boys, Golden.
Reed, Miss Mellie, Elbert.
Solly, E. M. E., Colorado Springs.
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Young Folks' Library, La Junta.

Denver.

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Lindsey, Judge Ben B.
Muller, Alfred, 115 Emerson St.
O'Ryan, Rev. Wm.
Pershing, J. H., 404 Equitable Bldg.
Shafroth, Hon. John F.

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Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Middletown.
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Newton, Henry G., 818 Chapel St.
Porter, Joseph, 215 Whitney Ave.
Preston, Sherwood O., 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Charles A.
Stokes, Rev. Anson Phelps, Jr., Elm St., Yale Univ.
Welch, Pierce N.

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*Bancroft, Wm. P., Wilmington.
Jackson, Mrs. Emma, 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Jackson, Henry M., 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Kellogg, Rev. H. W., Grace M. E. Church, Wilmington.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., 1202 Delaware Ave., Wilmington.
Wogan, Miss Ellen G., 200 E. 74th St., Wilmington.

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Cook, Miss Susan B., 607 Howard Ave., N. W.
Crosby, Frances S., 925 N. St., N. W.
Curtis, Henry S., 705 Ouray Bldg.
Darnall, O. E., Supt. Reform School, Bladensburg Pike.
DeLacy, Hon. William H., Judge Juvenile Court.
Department of Commerce and Labor, 15th and New York Ave.
Douglass, John W., Agt. Bd. of Ch. Guardians, 1705 35th St.
Downey, W. F., 1622 L St., N. W.
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Foster, Miss Estelle, 2512 17th St., N. W.
Foster, Mrs. J. Ellen, The Portner.
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Kerby, Rev. Wm. J., Prof. of Sociology, Catholic University.
*Kibbey, Miss Bessie J., 2025 Mass. Ave.
Klenn, L. R., 914 G St., N. W.
McKelway, A. J., 2805 Q St., N. W.
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Neighborhood House, The, 456 N St., S. W.
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Pellew, Henry E., 1637 Mass. Ave.
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Reynolds, James B., The Highlands.
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Rugg, Mrs. Mary C., 1813 Newton St.
Simpson, Mrs. Margaret F., 3404 Prospect Ave.
Skinner, C. W., Supt. Indus. Home Sch., 2575 Wis. Ave.
Stern, Rev. Louis, 1315 Columbia Road.
Truesdell, Col. George, Wyatt Bldg.
Ufford, Walter S., 811 G St., N. W.

Van Schaick, John, Jr., 1417 Mass. Ave.
Veditz, C. W. A., Geo. Washington University.
West, Mrs. Ella K., 3717 Georgia Ave., N. W.
West, James E., 1343 Clifton St.
Whitney, Mrs. Elizabeth A., Conduit Rd. and Nebraska Ave.
Wilson, G. S., Sec. Board of Charities, District Bldg.
Wood, Rev. Charles, 2110 S St.
Woodward, S. W., 2015 Wyoming Ave.
Zinkhan, Louis F., Supt. Washington Asylum.

FLORIDA.

Moore, Miss Sarah W., Merritt.
Seaton, Mrs. Cora Hawley, Supt. Ch. Home Soc. of Fla., Jacksonville.
Woman's Club of Jacksonville.

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Boyd, Mrs. I. S., Atlanta.
Campbell, John C., Demorest.
Campbell, Mrs. John C., Demorest.
Campbell, Dr. M. S., 171 Gordon St., Atlanta.
Copeland, C. M., Hapeville.
Crumley, Rev. H. L., 225 Gordon St.
Evans, Thomas, City Warden, Atlanta.
Gloer, J. M., 83 W. Cain St., Atlanta.
Granger, Mrs. A. O., Cartersville.
Jackson, Rev. Crawford, 912 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
Kriegshaber, V. H., Pres. Federation of Jewish Char., Atlanta.
Logan, Joseph C., Sec. Asso. Char., 705 Gould Bldg., Atlanta.
Longino, Dr. T. D., 723 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
Marx, David, 497 Washington St., Atlanta.
Philips, E., Columbus.
Raoul, Miss Rebecca Barnard, 708 Peachtree St., Atlanta.
Shepherd, Delmer, 5 W. 12th St., Columbus.
White, W. Woods, 609 Anstell Bldg., Atlanta.

HAWAII.

Horne, Perley L., Honolulu.
Jordan, Mrs. Alice C., 1146 Alakea St., Honolulu.
Rath, James A., Supt. Palama Settlement, Desha Lane, Honolulu.

IDAHO.

Humphries, J. T., Supt. Indus. Tr. School, St. Anthony.

ILLINOIS.

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Adams, Mrs. C. B., St. Charles.
*Amigh, Mrs. Ophelia L., Geneva.
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Athon, Dr. W. L., Supt. Southern Hosp. for Insane, Anna.
Bourland, Mrs. Clara P., 1301 Knoxville Rd., Peoria.
Bureau of Assoc. Char., 320 N. Main St., Bloomington.
Busse, William, Mount Prospect.
Charity Council of Aurora, Aurora.
Davis, Henry, Pres. Home for Friendless, 5th and Allen Sts., Springfield.
Fesler, Mrs. James C., Rochelle.
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Wagner, Mrs. Wm. M., 1310 S. 47th St.
Wallerstein, David, 607 Land Title Bldg.
Walker, Charles T., Gen. Sec. Juv. Protect. Assn., 726 S. 5th St.
Walsh, Dr. Joseph, 732 Pine St.
Wanamaker, Mrs. Mary B., 2032 Walnut St.
Warner, G. M., 462 Bourse.
Weaver, John, 300 Penn. Sq. Bldg.
Weber, Gustavus A., 510 S. Seventh St.
Wharton, Miss Mary B., 2141 Bainbridge St.
Wharton, Mrs. Rodman, 910 Clinton St.
Whitaker, Rt. Rev. O. W., 12th and Walnut Sts.
Whitehead, Miss Helen, Girls' House of Refuge, 900 N. 22d St.
Wing, Asa S., 4028 Walnut St.
Wister, Miss F. A., 1112 Spruce St.
*Wister, Mrs. Owen, Jr., 913 Pine St.
Witherbee, Frank D., 201 S. 11th St.
Wolf, Albert, 508 Ludlow St.
Wolf, Louis, 1339 Chestnut St.
Wood, Miss Elizabeth, 324 Earlham Terrace, Germantown.
Wood, Miss Juliana, 1620 Locust St.
*Woodward, Dr. George, 709 N. Amer. Bldg.
*Woodward, Mrs. George, Chestnut Hill.
Yeager, Miss Ellen C., 202 N. 58th St.
Y. W. C. A., 18th and Arch Sts.

PORTO RICO.

de Goenago, Dr. Francisco R., Supt. of Insane Asylum, San Juan.

RHODE ISLAND.

Betton, Miss Elizabeth L., 138 Gibbs Ave., Newport.
*Boucher, Philippe, 141 Wood Ave., Woonsocket.
Chadwick, Mrs. F. E., "Twin Oakes," Newport.
Charity Organization Society, Newport.
*Emmons, Arthur B., Newport.
Fernandis, Mrs. Sarah Collins, St. Luke's Cottage Settlement, East Greenwich.
Gardner, E. E., Howard.
Gerry, Elbridge T., Newport.
Hixon, Miss J. M., 320 Masonic Bldg., Pawtucket.
Horton, Horace F., 1274 Narraganset Blvd, Edgewood.
*Hunter, Miss Anna F., 20 Kay St., Newport.
Lawton, George R., Tiverton.
McCusker, James F., Warwick.
Read, Walter A., Glocester.
Rodman, Robert F., North Kingston.
Roy, Joseph, 121 Maple St., Woonsocket.
Shepard, Harry H., Bristol.
Smith, George Lewis, Nayatt.
Thayer, S. Willard, Pawtucket.
Thomas, Miss Harriet E., 263 Thames St., Newport.

Providence.

Bigelow, C. F., 23 Weybosset St.
Carpenter, Mrs. F. W., 276 Angell St.
Chace, Miss Lydia G., Butler Exchange.
Cheney, Mrs. Edward S., 34 Plain St.
Conyngton, Miss Mary K., 85 Congdon St.
Cummings, Matthew J., 616 Eddy St.
Gardiner, Miss Edna R., 156 Cypress St.
Gardner, Henry B., 54 Stimson Ave.
Gardner, Miss Mary S., 273 Bowen Ave.
Jilison, Francello G., Mem. St. Bd. Char.
Maymon, Thomas B., Gen. Sec. S. P. C. C., 20 Market Sq.
Minnick, James, 332 Butler Exchange.
Particular Council St. Vincent de Paul, 53 Cypress St.
Read, James R., State House.
Rousmaniere, Rev. Edmund S., 97 Angell St.
Scholfield, Miss Bessie M., 190 Knight St.
Tillinghast, Miss Charlotte L., 260 Angell St.
Whittemore, Gilbert E., City Hall.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Emmons, G. L., Supt. S. Car, Indus. Sch., Florence.
Jamison, A. T., Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood.
Jenkins, Rev. D. J., 20 Franklin St., Charleston.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Thomas, D C., Watertown.
Tipton, W. E., Sec. Bd. of Char. and Corr., Mitchell.
Whiting, Chas. S., Supreme Court, Pierre.
Wood, Mary E., Supt. Sch. for Blind, Gary.

*Sustaining Members.

TENNESSEE.

Davis, A. F., 8 So. 2d St., Memphis.
Herman, Mrs. Carrie, 313 N. High St., Nashville.
Kilvington, W. C., Industrial School, Nashville.
Loveman, Mrs. Adolph, 312 Clark Pl., So. Nashville.
*Ross, Mrs. W. C., 1515 W. Church Ave., Knoxville.
*Ruch, R., Maxwell.
United Charities, 418 6th Ave., Nashville.
Webb, Rev. Frederic L., Flag Pond.
Winchester, Rev. James R., D. D., 213 Driver St., Memphis.

TEXAS.

Brackenridge, G. W., San Antonio.
Brackenridge, Miss M. Eleanor, San Antonio.
Buckner, Rev. R. C., D. D., Buckner Orphans' Home, Dallas.
Clemens, W., New Braunfels.
Gould, Miss E. N., Rm. 9, Gaston Bldg., Dallas.
Green, John L., Mngr. United Charities, Fort Worth.
Green, Hon. R. B., 236 Ave. C., San Antonio.
Haley, Mrs. Sadie, 322 Hicks Bldg., San Antonio.
United Charities, Gaston Bldg., Dallas.
Women's Assoc. Char., Court House, El Paso.
Zepin, Rabbi George, Fort Worth.

UTAH.

Conroy, Dr. E. M., St. Indus. School, Ogden.
Dusenberry, Mrs Ida S., Provo.
Evans, T. B., State Indus. School, Ogden.
Joseph, H. S., State Indus. School, Ogden.
Thomas, H. H., State Indus. School, Ogden.

VERMONT.

Lawton, Dr. S. E., 75 Linden St., Brattleboro.
Wright, Rev. J. Edward, 19 Baldwin St., Montpelier.

VIRGINIA.

Barrett, Dr. Kate Waller, 408 Duke St., Alexandria.
Boggs, Mrs. Lucy Hove, King George Court House.
Davis, George B., Supt. Laurel Indus. School, School P. O.
Drewry, Dr. W. F., Petersburg.
Frissell, Rev. H. B., D. D., Hampton.
Gary, George E., 1106 Porter St., Manchester.
Gilliam, Robert, Fillmore and Jefferson Sts., Petersburg.
Grandy, Dr. Charles R., Norfolk.
Kellam, A. E., Princess Anne.
Lacy, T. H., Blackstone.
Parke, J. C., Franklin.
Payne, Bruce R., Charlottesville.
Phillpotts, M. Gertrude, 135 Cumberland St., Norfolk.
Pilcher, J. M., 369 Wash. St., Petersburg.
Read, Mrs. D. W., Charlotte Court House.
Rogers, J. E., Dendron.
*Roper, John L., Norfolk.
Stearmes, L. P., Newport News.
Taylor, W. E., 164 Bute St., Norfolk.
Vincent, W. H., Capron.
Winn, James A., Boydton.
Wright, Rev. Wm. P., Norfolk.

Richmond.

Bosher, Robert S., Jr., 11 N. 1st St.
Buchanan, Rev. James, 1408 E. Franklin St.
Forsythe, Rev. Robert S., 813 E. Grace St.
Gulley, Miss A., 201 E. Cary St.
Johnston, Dr. George B., 407 E. Grace St.
Levi, Dr. E. C., 615 E. Franklin St.
Mastin, Rev. J. T., Capitol Bldg.
Maybee, Wm. J., 2605 E. Franklin St.
Minor, Miss Nannie J., 108 N. 7th St.
Morgan, E. T., Supt. Va. Penit.
Mumford, Mrs. B. B., R. F. D. No. 4.
Robinson, Miss Eva A., Loretto Training School.
Sharpe, Arthur B., Station A.
Williams, Ennion G., 111 No. 4th St.

WASHINGTON.

Baker, Wm. B., Spokane.
Charity Org. Soc., 812 Collins Bldg., Seattle.
Covington, Rev. Luther J., 323 New York Block, Seattle.
Holbrook, Mrs. N. B., 4209 Mason Ave., Tacoma.
Murray, Miss Anna H., 1422 Harvard Ave., Seattle.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Allen, Mrs. Guy R. C., Wheeling.
Archbold, C. W., Parkersburg.
Dungan, Miss Hilda M., Supt. Indus. School for Girls, Industrial.
Library, W. Va. University, Morgantown.
Randolph, Mrs. B. S., Berkeley Springs.
Watson, Mrs. James O., 402 Fairmont Ave., Fairmont.
Williams, A. D., Marlinton.

WISCONSIN.

Associated Charities, 416 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee.
Baraboo Library, Baraboo.
Berry, Miss Mary J., State Indus. Sch. for Girls, Milwaukee.
Bowron, C. W., Green Bay.
Bright, C. M., Sparta.
Brindley, Hon. John, LaCrosse.
Brown, Mrs. W. E., Rhinelander.
Brown, Dr. J. F., School for Blind, Janesville.
Bunnell, Hon. M. L., Mauston.
Cary, Prof. C. P., Madison.
Chynoweth, Mrs. H. W., Madison.
Clark, Harvey, Janesville.
Cline, George D., Hudson.
Coffland, J. E., Richland Centre.
Conover, Allan D., Madison.

*Sustaining Members.

Cowie, Hon. R. S., Whitehall.
Dahl, Hon. Andrew, Madison.
Davidson, J. O., Madison.
Dewey, Dr. Richard, 34 Washington St., Wauwatosa.
Doolittle, Mrs. L. A., 222 Broadway, Eau Claire.
Dresser, Hon. L. B., St. Croix Falls.
Eissfeldt, Carl, 297 Wauwatosa Ave., Wauwatosa.
Elroy Library, Elroy.
Elver, Hon. E. T., Madison.
Frellson, G., 416 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee.
Frisby, Dr. Almah J., 285 Ogden Ave., Milwaukee.
Frost, E. W., 1201 Wells Bldg., Milwaukee.
Gilbert, Hon. Frank L., Madison.
Gordon, Dr. W. A., Winnebago.
Gorst, Dr. Charles, Mendota.
Grimmen, Hon. Elmer, Marinette.
Grotophorst, Herman, Baraboo.
Hagemeister, Hon. Henry, Green Bay.
Hall, F. W., Madison.
Hobbins, Mrs. J. W., Madison.
Hutton, A. J., Supt. Indus. School for Boys, Waukesha.
Jenks, Hon. Aldro, Dodgeville.
Johnson, Mrs. D. H., 734 Marshall St., Milwaukee.
Johnson, L. T., Richland Centre.
Johnson, Mrs. W. C., 232 Broadway, Eau Claire.
Kraege, Prof. F. G., Mazomanie.
Kurtz, Mrs. Julia, 483 Western Ave., Milwaukee.
Kusterman, Gustav, 828 Cherry St., Green Bay.
Kusterman, Oscar, 2416 Chestnut St., Milwaukee.
Lerum, A. C., Madison.
Lindsay, Wm., 78 Reed St., Milwaukee.
Lochen, Peter, West Bend.
Loeb, Miss Stella A., 499 Fifth St., Milwaukee.
Madison General Library, Madison.
McDonald, Miss Katherine I., Madison.
Meyer, Richard, Lancaster.
Monroe Library, Monroe.
Morris, Mrs. Charles, Berlin.
Naughtin, Rev. J. M., 222 W. Main St., Madison.
Nelson, Hon. A. G., Waupaca.
Park, M. T., State Pub. School, Sparta.
Paull, Dr. C. A., Supt. T. B. Sanatorium, Wales.
Perkins, E. J., Dodgeville.
Pierce, Dr. W. J., Dodgeville.
Pogue, Dr. Mary E., Lake Geneva.
Rabinovitch, Samuel, Supt. Heb. Relf. Soc., Milwaukee.
*Rahr, William, Manitowoc.
Robbins, Dr. M. M., R. F. D. 2, Suring.
Roehl, Joseph, Jr., Supt. Marathon Co. Asylum, Wausan.
Sale, Hon. John W., Janesville.
Sarles, Dr. W. F., Sparta.
Schaefer, Clara E., 299 4th St., Milwaukee.
Spenceley, Hon. Calvin, Mineral Point.
Stalker, Rev. A. W., Madison.
*Stout, J. H., Menominee.
Strange, Hon. John, Oshkosh.
Tappins, Hon. M. J., Madison.
Town, Henry, Waupun.
Treat, Hon. N. B., Monroe.
Walker, Prof. E. W., Supt. School for Deaf, Delavan.
Watertown Library, Watertown.
Waukesha Library, Waukesha.
Wilmarth, Dr. A. W., Supt. St. Home for F. M., Chippewa Falls.
Wiltrout, Mrs. I. B., 321 4th Ave., Eau Claire.
Youmans, Mrs. H. M., Waukesha.
Zuerner, Wm. F., City Hall, Milwaukee.

*Sustaining Members.

BELGIUM.

Morel, Dr. Jules, Asile D'Alienees de l'Etat, Mons.

CANADA.

Armstrong, S. A., Inspector Prisons and Public Charities, Toronto.
Arnold, Samuel, 12 Richmond St., E, Toronto.
Bain, James, Jr., Toronto.
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Boyd, Rev. Hunter, Waweig, New Brunswick.
Brown, Adam, Pres. Children's Aid Soc., Hamilton, Ont.
Burland, Jeffrey H., 9 Bleury St., Montreal.
Cohen, Lyon, 36 Prince St., Montreal.
Duncan, Wm., 229 Simcoe St., Toronto.
Falk, J. Howard T., 212 Good St., Winnipeg, Manitoba.
Gould, G. R., Mimico, Ont.
Gibson, Hon. J. M., K. C., Hamilton.
Gilmour, Dr. J. T., Toronto.
Griswold, H. J., Y. M. C. A. Bldg, Montreal.
Hanna, Hon. W. J., Sarnia.
Kelso, J. J., Parliament Bldg., Toronto.
Lane, Richard H., C. O. S., 98 Bleury St., Montreal.
McMenny, J. H., City Hall, Hamilton.
MacMurchy, Dr. Helen, 133 Bloor St., Toronto.
Mitchell, Z. W., Edmonton, Alberta.
O'Sullivan, Mrs. Emma, Supt. Reformatory for Women, Toronto.
Prisoner's Aid Assn. of Canada., 17 Richmond St., E. Toronto.
Rosebrugh, Dr. A. M., 76 Prince Arthur Ave., Toronto.
Smith, Dr. R. W. Bruce, Parliament Bldgs., Toronto.
South, C. J., Vancouver, B. C.
Taylor, Edward, City Hall, Toronto.

CUBA.

Berriz, Antonio M., 21 Reina St., Havana.
Berriz, Jose M., 21 Reina St., Havana.
Finlay, Dr. C. E., Reina 128, Havana.
Martinez, Dr. Emilio, Neptuno 56, Havana.
Valdes, Dr. Juan B., Reina 21, Havana.

CHILE.

Montt, Dr. Pedro, Casa da Orater, Portal McClure, Santiago.

ENGLAND.

Macauley, Col. C. E., New Court, Ascot, Berks.

GERMANY.

Herzfeld, Gustav, LL.D., 37 Victoria St., Wildpark, Potsdam, Berlin, S. W.

Kirch, Miss Ida, Pres. Legal Aid Soc., Liebigstr. 37, Frankfort.

Pappenheim, Miss Bertha, Pres. Jewish Council of Women, Prainheimerstr. 9, Frankfort.

NEW ZEALAND.

MacGregor, Dr. Duncan, Wellington.

SWEDEN.

Salomon, Hon. Harald, Grefgatan 62, Stockholm.

Von Koch, G. H., 6 Lustmakargatan, Stockholm.

RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.*

PREAMBLE

The National Conference of Charities and Correction exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. MEMBERSHIP

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, and the sustaining membership fee shall be $10.00 annually. These membership fees shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. OFFICERS

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, first, second and third Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six assistant Secretaries, a Treasurer, and a Corresponding Secretary from each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. COMMITTEES

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, first Vice-president, the Treasurer, and all ex-Presidents ex officio, and nine members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of nine on Organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions; to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. DUTIES OF OFFICERS

The President shall be chairman, ex officio, of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in and add to the numbers of any committee except the Executive Committee. In case of the absence or inability of the President to serve he shall be succeeded by the first Vice-President, and he in like manner by the second or third Vice-President in the order named.

The General Secretary shall be ex officio Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programs and shall direct the work of the secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

*Including amendments made June, 1909.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The retiring President of the Conference and the General Secretary shall constitute a publication committee, and shall have charge of the editing and publishing of the Proceedings.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. THE DUTIES OF COMMITTEES

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum; provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds, for the local expense, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the program for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the program, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. SECTION MEETINGS

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meetings may be given to discussion.

VII. DEBATES

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. AMENDMENTS

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

State Boards and Commissions

ARIZONA. Board of Control. Capitol, Phoenix. Established 1894. Gov. Richard E. Sloan, Chairman, Phoenix; James J. Riggs, Secretary, Phoenix; Auditor of State, W. C. Foster, ex officio, Phoenix.

CALIFORNIA. State Board of Charities and Corrections. 1025 The Merchant's Exchange, San Francisco. Established 1903. James N. Gillett, Governor, Sacramento; Charles A. Ramm, D. D., San Francisco; E. C. Moore, Ph. D., Los Angeles; Louis Rosenthal, San Francisco; R. S. Taylor, Yreka; W. S. Tinning, Martinez; J. K. McLean, D. D., President, Berkeley; W. A. Gates, Secretary; Anita Eldridge, Clerk.

COLORADO. State Board of Charities and Corrections. Capitol, Denver. Established 1891. Gov. John F. Shafroth, ex officio, Denver; Rev. William O'Ryan, Denver; Lafayette Hughes, Denver; Mrs. James Williams, Denver; Rev. Dr. Wm. S. Friedman, President, Denver; Mrs. Stanley M. Caspar, Vice-President, Denver; William Thomas, Secretary, Denver; Mrs. Anna G. Williams, Assistant Secretary; Miss Jessie C. Farrar, Clerk.

CONNECTICUT. State Board of Charities. Capitol, Hartford. Established 1873. Edwin A. Down, M. D., President, Hartford; Mrs. Frank A. Mitchell, Norwich; J. B. Holman, Saybrook; Thomas F. Kane, Hartford; Miss Anna C. Walter, Middletown; Charles P. Kellogg, Secretary, Waterbury.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. Board of Charities. District Building. Established 1900. Myer Cohen, Washington; George W. Cook, Washington; George M. Kober, Washington; John Joy Edson, President, Washington; George E. Hamilton, Washington; George S. Wilson, Secretary, Washington.

GEORGIA. The Prison Commission of Georgia. Atlanta. Established 1897. Clement A. Evans, Atlanta; Wiley Williams, Columbus; Joseph S. Turner, Chairman, Eatonton; Goodloe H. Yancey, Secretary, Atlanta.

ILLINOIS. The Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities. State House, Springfield. Established 1869. Mrs. Clara P. Bourland, Peoria; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Chicago; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford; Dr. John T. McAnally, Carbondale; Dr. Frank Billings, President, Chicago; William C. Graves, Executive Secretary, Springfield; Harry S. Moore, Assistant Secretary, Springfield.

INDIANA. Board of State Charities. State House, Indianapolis. Established 1889. Demarchus C. Brown, Indianapolis; W. H. Eichhorn, Bluffton; Mrs. Emma Lee Elam, Indianapolis; Dr. Mary A. Spink, Indianapolis; Rev. Francis H. Gavisk, Indianapolis; John H. Holliday, Indianapolis; Gov. Thomas R. Marshall, ex officio, President, Indianapolis; Amos W. Butler, Secretary, Indianapolis.

IOWA. Board of Control of State Institutions. Capitol, Des Moines. Established 1898. G. S. Robinson, Sioux City; J. T. Hamilton, Cedar Rapids; John Cownie, Chairman, South Amana; F. S. Treat, Secretary, Des Moines.

KANSAS. BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS. Topeka. Established 1905. Harry C. Bowman, Chairman, Newton; Edgar B. Schermerhorn, Galena; Sherman G. Elliott, Treasurer, Lawrence; F. W. Knapp, Secretary, Topeka.

LOUISIANA. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. New Orleans. Established 1904. Hon. Jared Y. Sanders, ex officio, President, Baton Rouge; F. S. Weis, Secretary, New Orleans.

MARYLAND. BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES. Baltimore. Established 1900. B. A. Betts; Dr. St. Clair Spruill; Dr. Jacob H. Hollander, James E. Ingram, Wm. J. McCrea, Joseph B. Harrington, Thomas A. Smith; Lloyd Wilkinson, Secretary, Baltimore.

MARYLAND. THE LUNACY COMMISSION. Baltimore. Established 1886. Dr. Hugh H. Young, President, Baltimore; Dr. John D. Blake, Baltimore; Dr. R. Markley Black, Baltimore; Dr. Henry M. Hurd, Baltimore; Hon. Isaac Lohestraus. Attorney-General, ex officio, Baltimore; Dr. Arthur P. Herring, Secretary, 330 N. Charles street, Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS. STATE BOARD OF CHARITY. State House, Boston. Established 1879. Law amended 1886 and 1898. Leontine Lincoln, Chairman, Fall River; Charles H. Adams, Vice-Chairman, Melrose; Miss Frances Greely Curtis, Boston; Charles R. Johnson, Worcester; David F. Tilley, Boston; Abraham C. Ratshesky, Boston; Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston; Thomas Downey, Boston; Mrs. Ada Eliot Sheffield, Cambridge; Joshua F. Lewis, M. D., Superintendent of State Adult Poor; James E. Fee, Superintendent of State Minor Wards, Boston; John D. Wells, Clerk of the Board, Boston.

MASSACHUSETTS. STATE BOARD OF INSANITY. State House, Boston. Established 1898. Herbert B. Howard, M. D., Chairman, Boston; Michael J. O'Meara, M. D., Worcester, Henry P. Field, Northampton; William F. Whittemore, Boston; George F. Jelly, Boston; Owen Copp, M. D., Secretary, Brookline.

MASSACHUSETTS. THE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSSIONERS. Boston. Established 1898. Frederick G. Pettigrove, Chairman, Boston; Mrs. Margaret P. Russell, Boston; Henry Parkman, Boston; Arthur H. Wellman, Malden; Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, Boston; J. Warren Bailey, Secretary, Boston.

MICHIGAN. BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES. Lansing. Established 1871. Fred M. Warner, Governor, ex officio, Lansing; Henry P. Mowry, M. D., Chairman, Bronson; Charles Lewis, Jackson; Dayton Parker, M. D., Detroit; George Clapperton, Grand Rapids; Marl T. Murray, Secretary, Lansing.

MINNESOTA. STATE BOARD OF CONTROL. St. Paul. Established 1901. Charles Halvorson, Chairman, Dawson; P. M. Ringdal, Crookston; E. Vasaly, Little Falls; J. D. Mills, Secretary, St. Paul; M. C. Cutter, Purchasing Agent, St. Paul.

MISSOURI. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. Jefferson City. Established 1897. Mrs. Mary McNab Miller, Columbia; Miss Mary E. Perry, St. Louis; R. M. Abercrombie, St. Joseph; Wm. J. Wyatt, Hamilton; Dr. Porter E. Williams, Bunceton; Gov. Herbert S. Hadley, President; Henry L. McCune, Kansas City, Vice-President; Wm. T. Cross, Columbia, Secretary.

NEBRASKA. BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS. Lincoln. Established 1877. W. T. Thompson, Lincoln; L. J. Brian, Lincoln; E. B. Cowles, President, Lincoln; George C. Junkin, Secretary, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION. Established 1895. James F. Brennan, Peterboro; Mrs. Kate Howard Brown, Whitefield; Oliver J. M. Gilman, Alton; Sherman E. Burroughs, Manchester; Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, Chairman, Concord; William J. Ahern, Secretary, Concord.

NEW JERSEY. STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS. Jersey City. Established 1899. Rev. J. R. Atkinson, Elizabeth; Joseph McCrystal, Paterson; Frederick G. Burnham, Morristown; Katherine E. Abbey, Mount Holly; Hugh F. Fox, President, Plainfield; Anthony T. Williams, Secretary.

NEW JERSEY. STATE COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION. George B. Wight, Trenton.

NEW YORK. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES. Albany. Established 1867. Law amended 1896. Commissioners, Wm. R. Stewart, New York; Stephen Smith, M. D., New York; Annie G. DePeyster, New York; Thomas M. Mulry, New York; Augustus Floyd, Mastic; Joseph C. Baldwin, Jr., Mt. Kisco; Simon W. Rosendale, Albany; Richard L. Hand, Elizabethtown; Dennis McCarthy, Syracuse; Ralph W. Thomas, Hamilton; Horace McGuire, Rochester; William H. Gratwick, Buffalo; officers: Wm. R. Stewart, President, New York; Stephen Smith, M. D., Vice-President, New York; Robert W. Hill, Secretary, Albany; Richard W. Wallace, Superintendent of Inspection, Albany; Wm. C. Rogers, Superintendent of State and Alien Poor, Albany.

NEW YORK. STATE COMMISSION OF LUNACY. Albany. Established 1889. Sheldon T. Viele, Buffalo; William L. Parkhurst, Canandaigua; Albert Warren Ferris, President, New York; T. E. McGarr, Secretary, Albany; Wm. L. Russell, M. D., Medical Inspector, Poughkeepsie; George D. Sanford, Auditor, Albany.

NEW YORK. STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS. Albany. Established 1895. Law amended 1901. Francis C. Huntington, New York; Simon P. Quick, Windsor; Sarah L. Davenport, Bath; Edgar A. Newell, Ogdensburg; John McNamee, Brooklyn; Charles F. Howard, M. D., President, Buffalo; Henry Solomon, Vice-President, New York; George McLaughlin, Secretary, Albany.

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OKLAHOMA. STATE COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION. Miss Kate Barnard, Guthrie.

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TENNESSEE. BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES. Nashville. Established 1895. W. R. Cole, Nashville; Rabbi I. Lewinthal, Nashville; John J. Bishop, Memphis; James Maynard, Knoxville; Rev. John W. Bachman, President, Chattanooga; Rev. James A. Orman, Nashville; Rev. Erwin P. Anderson, Secretary, Nashville.

VIRGINIA. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES. Richmond. Established 1908. Dr. Paulus A. Irving, Richmond; Hon. J. Alston Cabell, Richmond; Dr. George H. Denny, Chairman, Lexington; Rev. S. C. Hatcher, Farmville; Hon. L. P. Stearnes, Newport News; Secretary, Rev. J. T. Mastin, Richmond; Miss Martha Patteson Bowie, Assistant Secretary, Richmond.

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INDEX OF SUBJECTS

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS INDEX

Names of states etc., the usual P. O. abbreviations, as N. Y., Ala., U. S.

A. C.	Associated charities.	Dest.	Destitute,-s.	O. D. R.	Outdoor relief.
A. I. C. P.	Association for Improving Condition of Poor.	Dev.	Development,-s.	Off.	Officer,-s,-cial-s.
		Dr.	Doctor.	Org.	Organized,-ation,-s.
Abol.	Abolish,-ition,-ment	E.	East,-ern.	Orp.	Orphan,-s.
Adm.	Administration,-tive	Econ.	Economic,-s,-al.	Pen.	Penitentiary.
Adv.	Advanced,-ing, advantage.	Emp.	Employed,-ment.	Phi.	Philanthropy,-ical.
		Engd.	England,-ish.	Phys.	Physical.
Agst.	Against.	Epi.	Epileptic,-s,-sy.	Plg.	Placing.
Amd.	Amend,-ed,-ment,-s.	Est.	Establish,-ed,-ment.	Pri.	Private.
Appn.	Appropriation,-s.	Exp.	Expense,-es.	Pris.	Prison,-s,-er,-ers.
Appt.	Appointment,-s,-ed.	F. M.	Feebleminded,-ness	Prob.	Probation.
Assd.	Associated.	F. V.	Friendly visitor,-s.	Prohi.	Prohibition,-ive.
Assn.	Association.	Govt.	Government,-al.	Prov.	Provision.
Asy.	Asylum.	H.	House,-s.	Pt.	Point.
Bd.	Board,-s.	Ho.	Home,-s.	Pub.	Public,-ity.
Bdg.	Boarding.	Hosp.	Hospital,-s.	*Re.*	Concerning.
Bl.	Blind.	Id.	Idiot,-ic.	Ref.	Refuge, reformatory
Bldg.	Building,-s.	Illit.	Illiterate,-cy.	Reg.	Regulation,-s,-ing.
Ch.	Child, children,-'s.	Imb.	Imbecile,-s.	Rel.	Relief.
Char.	Charity,-ies,-able.	Imgt.	Immigration.	R. R.	Railroad.
Chgd.	Changed.	Imm.	Immigrant,-s.	S.	South,-ern.
Chh.	Church,-'s,-es.	Imp.	Improved,-ment,-s.	San.	Sanatorium,-a.
Co.	County, Company.	Inc.	Increase,-ing.	Sch.	School,-s.
Col.	Colony,-ies.	Incor.	Incorrigible,-s,-ility.	Sec.	Secretary,-ies, secular.
Com.	Committee, Commission,-s.	Ind.	Industrial.	Sett.	Settlement.
Comr.	Commissioner,-s.	Ins.	Insane.	Soc.	Society, social.
Cond.	Condition,-s.	Inst.	Institution,-s,-al.	Spec.	Special.
Conf.	Conference,-s.	Insp.	Inspect,-or,-ion.	St.	State,-s.
Cont.	Control.	Invt.	Investigate,-ed-ion-s	Statis.	Statistics,-ical,-ician
Cor.	Correction,-s,-al.	Juv.	Juvenile.	Super.	Supervisor,-s,-ision.
C. O. S.	Charity Organization Society.	Lab.	Labor,-er,-s.	Supt.	Superintend-ing-ent
Crl.	Crime,-inal,-s.	Legis.	Legislator,-s-ive-ure	T. B.	Tuberculosis.
Ct.	Court,-s.	N.	North,-ern.	Trg.	Training.
Def.	Defective,-s,-ness.	Nat.	National.	Uni.	University,-ies.
Deg.	Degenerate,-s,-tion.	No.	Number,-s.	W.	West,-ern.
Del.	Delinquent,-cy.			Wk.	Work,-er,-s.
Dep.	Dependent,-cy.			Wkg.	Working.
Dept	Department.				

Words in SMALL CAPITALS signify COMMITTEES; phrases in *italics* signify *titles of papers;* author's name follows title.

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